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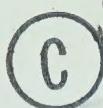
THE EVOLVEMENT OF PHYSICAL EDUCATION

IN SOUTH AFRICA

recommend to the Faculty of Graduate Studies and Research,
for acceptance, a thesis entitled "The Evolvement of Physical
Education in South Africa," submitted by Justus R. Potgieter
in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of

by

Master of Arts



JUSTUS R. POTGIETER

A THESIS

SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH

IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE

OF MASTER OF ARTS

DEPARTMENT OF PHYSICAL EDUCATION

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The primary purpose of this study was to determine
how and The undersigned certify that they have read, and
recommend to the Faculty of Graduate Studies and Research,
for acceptance, a thesis entitled "The Evolvement of Physical
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ABSTRACT

The primary purpose of this study was to determine how and to what extent factors such as the socio-cultural, political, economic, religious, and physical environment affected the evolution of physical education in the South African educational system.

Physical education in South Africa is of an eclectic nature. The selection of certain elements from various foreign systems was a reflection of existing socio-cultural values and beliefs held in relation to physical education.

The need for and function of physical education varied according to changing conditions in South African society. Physical education had its hey-day in the period of growing national awareness. The need for physical and moral rehabilitation of the South African nation also facilitated the acceptance of physical education as an integral part of education.

Insufficient adjustment to changing societal conditions contributed to the apparent lack of status of certain sections of physical education after the Second World War.

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CHAPTER I

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Introduction

Human behaviour varies according to the situation to which it is exposed. Since physical education is an aspect of human behaviour it will be affected by similar factors to those that determine man's behaviour.

Although all men have similar basic biological and emotional needs, cultural interpretations regulate the way in which these needs are fulfilled. If man's ways of eating, sleeping, dressing, etc., differ from one society to the other, it seems logical that the institutions of the particular society in which man finds himself at a specific time will also be shaped by the culture that surrounds them.

Much of what seemed rooted in the very nature of man and even the notion of human nature came to be seen as culturally variable among peoples . . . most of what groups of men say and think and believe, how they relate socially, and what they do with their material environment--or what they sometimes call mentifacts, sociofacts, and artifacts--are all manifestations of culture.¹

The role and worth ascribed to physical education have constantly been modified by the situation that surrounded it.

. . . beliefs and values within a given society, held in relation to man and his body, have resulted in quite different concepts and programs in what we today call Physical Education . . . in any given period Physical

¹ Robert F. Berkhofer, A Behavioral Approach to Historical Analysis (New York: Free Press, 1969), p. 84.

Education is culturally determined by what man thinks of himself in relation to his body, and how he thinks his body should be trained, exercised, disciplined, developed, educated; in effect how he, himself, should be trained, exercised, disciplined, developed, educated.²

The contention that physical education is an expression of the socio-cultural value system requires a clarification of the term "culture." One definition that is frequently put forward is that of Tylor in his book, Primitive Culture.

Culture or civilization is that complex whole which includes knowledge, beliefs, art, morals, law, custom, and any other capabilities and habits acquired by man as a member of a society.³

This definition implies that culture is not merely a collection of customs and habits randomly thrown together but that culture as an integrated whole consists of ingredients that are logically and functionally integrated in such a way that, in relation to each other, they make sense.

Members of a society, consciously and unconsciously, agree on basic rules for living together and the term generally used for these guiding rules is "culture." In this sense cultural values are not ends but should rather be seen as standards of evaluation.

. . . cultural values as opposed to individual values are the standards by which objects and objectives are judged according to an interpersonal process of ranking.

²Rosalind Cassidy, "The Cultural Definition of Physical Education," Quest, IV (April, 1965), 11.

³Edward B. Tylor, Primitive Culture (5th ed.; London: J. Murray, 1929), p. 1.

. . . Evaluation in a cultural sense is then the selection of alternative ends in the ideational process according to a group's standards of the desirable, the worthwhile, the preferable. A cultural value, is not the object or objective itself; it is the standard by which those are judged.⁴

Cultural values, then, are those ideals of a society that may not always be obvious to its members but are implicit in actual behaviour; that are orientated towards the ideal situation of what is good, worthwhile, and preferable for a particular situation. Physical education will occupy a prominent place in a given society at a given time if the society feels that its presence is good, worthwhile, and preferable. It is known that varying degrees of worth have been attached to physical education at different times and in different situations.

Cultural values do not only serve as the basis for the process of evaluation but also have a function in maintaining existing cultural patterns. Through the process of control they also regulate societal needs and the ways in which these are achieved.

It is for the purpose of perpetuating culture that organizations and institutions are created by the members of society. As a society evolves toward greater technological complexity, and as it achieves a standard of living that causes some people to think reflectively about the society

⁴Berkhofer, Behavioral Approach to Historical Analysis, p. 101.

and its future, it creates educational institutions.⁵ The school is the most important educational institution that is concerned with cultural transmission.

Because education is the result of a society's effort to perpetuate its culture, it seems logical to expect that it will reflect the values of the society that created it. It also follows that physical education within the school should reflect the same values. In the school the child is "taught" through the process of enculturation and socialization to adopt the attitudes and expected (normative) ways of behaving attributed to the social role he occupies. Because culture is learned rather than biologically inherited it is often called man's social heritage. One generation "inherits" the customs of another only in the respect that they are carried over or transmitted to the former by the latter. It is then necessary that the content, aims, and methods of education will represent the type and quality of life that is considered worthy of attainment by a particular society. The status and role of physical education in the school will be subject to the same considerations.

Because no society is static, value changes take place to a greater or lesser degree. In a dynamic society, environmental conditions, knowledge and beliefs, and social ideals are in a constant state of change. New concepts are

⁵ Robert J. Havighurst and Bernice L. Neugarten, Society and Education (Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1957), p. xii.

encountered and evaluated. These new concepts often result in a questioning of existing values, and when strong enough they can, by means of the process of conditioning, bring about a realignment of cultural values. When the changes in man's environment bring about major value changes they can alter his philosophy of life and ultimately his philosophy of education.

The specific role of the school is to assist in the transmission of cultural norms, values, knowledge and skills to its members thus enabling them to fully participate in and contribute towards the welfare and advancement of the society. This requires the school not only to be conservative but also creative by, on the one hand, preserving traditions, and on the other, destroying or modifying outdated beliefs and introducing new ones.

When a society revises educational objectives to meet new conditions the organization, methods, and content of education are modified to meet the new demands. In this process of reorganization of education, physical education is often affected in some way or another.

Changes in the political, social, economic, religious, and physical environment of a society will similarly change the environment within which physical education is functioning in that society. This changing situation which confronts physical education from time to time will modify its nature, role, and scope. The direction and extent of these modifications will be determined by the existing cultural values.

The Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to investigate the situations that surrounded South African physical education at various stages of its development in order to determine how and to what extent factors such as the socio-cultural, political, military, religious, economic, and physical environment influenced its evolution and direction.

Justification of the Study

The study serves a three-fold purpose. Firstly, no major historical work has been written on the development of physical education in South Africa. Apart from articles by Kelder,⁶ Jooste,⁷ and Du Toit,⁸ historical information on South African physical education is limited to chapters in general works by authors such as Leonard,⁹ Postma,¹⁰ Rice,¹¹

⁶J. C. Kelder, "Die Historiese Ontwikkeling van Liggaamsoefeninge in die Onderwysdepartemente," in Report of the First South African Congress for Physical Education, 9-12 Jan., 1945 (Stellenbosch: Pro-Ecclesia-Drukkery [Edms.] Beperk, 1945).

⁷Martin Jooste, "n Beknopte Oorsig van die Ontwikkeling van Liggaamlike Opvoeding in Suid-Afrika (1652-1936)," Vigor, VII (June, September, 1954).

⁸Stephanus F. du Toit, "Physical Education in South Africa," in Physical Education Around the World, Monograph No. 1., Edited by William Johnson (Indianapolis: Phi Epsilon Kappa Fraternity, 1966).

⁹Fred Eugene Leonard, A Guide to the History of Physical Education (Philadelphia: Lea and Febiger, 1947). Information on South African Physical Education was submitted by Dr. Ernst Jokl.

¹⁰J. W. Postma, Introduction to the Theory of Physical Education (Cape Town: A. A. Balkema, 1968).

¹¹Emmet A. Rice, John L. Hutchinson, and Lee Mabel, A History of Physical Education (4th ed. New York: Ronald Press Company, 1958).

and Van Dalen.¹² It is hoped that the outline of South African physical education that emerges from this study will make a contribution to the field as far as historical information is concerned.

Secondly, it is known that the borrowing of ideas and forms of behaviour from one culture by another is common. It follows that societies that have frequent contact with other cultures may be expected to change more often than do isolated communities. This does not mean that a society will accept a system of foreign ideas and customs in toto but that it will selectively borrow elements that it believes are suited to its own situation. Attempts are made to select the worthwhile elements only. The worthiness or usefulness of these elements is decided on the basis of existing cultural values.

In its historical development, South African physical education also borrowed elements from physical education systems of other cultures. Physical education in South Africa is of an eclectic nature and a better insight into the socio-cultural and physical environment, in which physical education found itself at various stages in its history, points to the rationale behind selective borrowing of particular aspects of foreign systems for assimilation into the South African system. In the process of linking physical education with the factors that shaped it there can be a better understanding of the role and place of physical education in society.

Thirdly, it is believed that in order to fulfill a

¹²Debold B. Van Dalen and Bruce L. Bennett, A World History of Physical Education: Cultural, Philosophical, Comparative (2nd ed. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1971).

useful and worthy purpose, physical education has to reflect the values, beliefs and needs of the society it is purported to serve. The study attempts to elucidate whether South African physical education has been attuned to contemporary societal needs and cultural values.

Delimitations of the Study

The term physical education has for the purpose of this study been limited to its narrow context. It refers to the process that takes place in an educational situation i.e. as part of an instructional period on the teaching time-table of an educational institution such as a school, college or university. Physical education in this sense is viewed as being distinctly separate from the extra-mural sports programme, recreational, or leisure time activities that take place after school hours.

One of the salient characteristics of South African society is its cultural pluralism. The country accommodates three broad cultural currents and many more specific cultures. Because of this cultural multiplicity, the investigation has been delimited to the two main white cultural groups as represented by Afrikaans and English-speaking citizens.

Limitations of the Study

The limitations of this investigation were both theoretical and practical. The fact that society and culture are so interrelated makes it difficult to separate the one from the other. It is for this reason that the term "socio-cultural" has been frequently used. Furthermore, a study of cultural values is made complicated by the variability and

plasticity of culture itself.

Although South African society has been described as relatively conservative it is nevertheless difficult to reduce it to any systematic order. There is no agreed method for determining and stating what changes in the values of an individual or group have taken place during a given period or what these values are at a given time.¹³ This means that value judgements are generally made within the framework of the observer's own values when he makes judgements and statements on the values of the group under study.

The fact that this study was undertaken outside the South African situation provided it with a broader and more critical perspective of South African physical education. This did, on the other hand, limit the availability of some primary source material.

Organization of the Study

The investigation has not been focussed solely on the historical developments of physical education in South Africa but attention has, in the first place, been given to the environment in which physical education was established and developed. Since South African physical education did not evolve in a vacuum a study has been made of the forces that stimulated, restricted, or modified it.

¹³ Kurt Baier and Nicholas Rescher, editors, Values and the Future (Toronto: Collier-MacMillan Ltd., 1971), p. 5.

The historical development of physical education has been traced by consulting general histories of physical education, works on education, articles in yearbooks and journals, newspaper reports, reports and publications of physical education conferences, questionnaire reports on physical education, and articles in Vigor (the official publication of the South African Association for Physical Education and Recreation). Use was also made of South African syllabi for physical education and contributions from individuals who have been involved in physical education since its formal introduction in South Africa. Information on South African society was obtained from contemporary newspaper reports and available works on South African economic, cultural, political, and educational developments.

CHAPTER II

ISOLATION: THE ROLE OF PHYSICAL

EDUCATION 1652-1839

The early South African settlers had a physical frontier to conquer. Physical education as well as other aspects of education were, to a great extent, shaped by the frontier situation.

The content and scope of education and physical education remained limited not only as a result of the restrictions imposed on it by the physical environment but also as a result of beliefs and values held in relation to education, physical activity, and recreation.

Early Education at the Cape

In 1652 officials of the Dutch East Indian Company arrived at the Cape of Good Hope to establish a refreshment station for the purpose of providing the Dutch ships with fresh produce on their long voyage to the East.

By 1658 the isolated white population at the Cape had grown to a mere 140 people. With the arrival of 170 slaves from Angola in that year, a need was felt for the establishment of a school. This need was a manifestation of the strong religious beliefs of the early settlers. Pieter van der Stael, the sieketrooster (sick-comforter) was put in charge of the first South African school. The

content of education was exclusively religious--the main function of the school being to teach the slaves to say Christian prayers. In order to obtain their cooperation each slave received a small glass of brandy and two inches of tobacco after lessons.¹ In 1663 this school was opened to the Dutch children.² As in the case of the original school the purpose of instruction remained religious in nature. Physical education, along with many other subjects, had no place in this school.³

Early education at the Cape was synonymous with the doctrine of the Dutch Reformed Church in which Bible history, psalm singing, reading and writing were regarded as sufficient education for church membership. The only secular subject sometimes taught was elementary arithmetic.⁴ Schools were housed in barn-lofts, church halls and vestries, large houses and rooms. Such accommodations were not conducive to any form of physical education. Qualified teachers were scarce with the result that the early years of the settlement at the Cape became an era of vagabond itinerant

¹H. B. Thom, ed., Journal of Jan van Riebeeck, 1652-1658, translated from the original Dutch by J. Smuts (Cape Town: Balkema, 1954), p. 258.

²E. G. Malherbe, Education in South Africa, 1652-1922 (Cape Town: Juta and Co., Ltd., 1925), p. 28.

³Jooste, "Liggaamlike Opvoeding in Suid-Afrika," p. 32.

⁴Edward George Pells, 300 Years of Education in South Africa (Cape Town: Juta, 1954), p. 15.

schoolmasters. These meesters were sometimes well qualified but more often they were poorly educated, disreputable characters of "few manners and no morals, who taught the children little and that little badly."⁵ In 1887 James Mackinnon recalls:

. . . the picture of an old Boer schoolmaster, who had gone too deeply in the brandy bottle . . . He was one of those strolling tutors so much in vogue among the Boers in ancient times, and still to be stumbled on. . . . Alas! for the youths under this pedagogue's care. Many a funny story did we hear about the exploits of such a teaching.⁶

Many Boer families were less fortunate in obtaining the services of any teachers, however poor they may have been.

Education of the Pioneers

The word "trek"⁷ can be written across the history of South Africa. This had a marked influence on education and physical education.

In 1657 the Company made a decision to free some of the employees from its service and award them small areas for private farming. The primary reason for this step was the inability of the Company, because of unfavourable conditions at the Cape, to meet the demand for corn and beef.

⁵ Ibid.

⁶ James Mackinnon, South African Traits (Edinburg: James Gemmel, 1887), p. 161.

⁷ The word "trek" means "travel" or "voyage" in Afrikaans. The derivatives "trekboer" and "voortrekker" translated mean respectively a "traveling farmer" and a "pioneer." The term "Great Trek" is given to the migration of the Boers away from British rule. This took place in the late 1830's and the early 1840's.

These freeburghers soon became attracted to cattle farming. In spite of restrictions imposed by the Cape authorities the emergence of the cattle farmer soon resulted in trekking in search of pastures. The nomadic and unsettled life of the trekboer had an adverse effect on the establishment of schools and education in general.

The migration of the trekboer into the interior was rapid because of the absence of physical opposition. It was only in 1778 when contact was made with the Xhosa that the rapid expansion was called to a halt.⁸ The fact that the Bantu as well as the Boer were pastoral farmers soon led to conflict and marks the beginning of a long history of racial problems in South Africa. The attitude of the Boer towards the Bantu was one of the factors that led to the second period of migration in South African history--the Great Trek.

When in 1806 Britain took over the Cape from the Batavian Republic the belief in the natural goodness of the "noble savage" was strong in Europe. With the British came missionaries with liberal ideas from Europe. The Black Circuit of 1812 (in which judges investigated alleged atrocities committed by the trekboers against the Bantu); the 50th Ordinance of 1828 (abolishing the vagrancy laws pertaining to the Hottentots); the Reform Laws and the ultimate Freedom of the Slaves in 1834, were all products of the influence that the London Missionary Society exerted on

⁸G. E. Cory, The Rise of South Africa (6 Vol., London: Longmans, Green and Co., 1910), Vol. I., p. 35.

the British policy in its governing of Southern Africa.

Apart from the fact that rule of strangers is generally not popular, the frontier farmers would not be bound by the ideas and policies of the British. Dissatisfaction with British rule culminated in the Great Trek.⁹

There is danger in assuming that these people had a continual yearning for travel and the nomadic way of life. An overview of South African history points to situations of serious external disruptions and pressures that led to the major migrations in the history of the South African peoples. It is recognized, on the other hand, that there must have been some individuals who had a wanderlust that kept them on the move.

The migration of the trekboer and the voortrekkers had a definite effect on their mode of life and consequently on the education of the children. The Trek soon differentiated these pioneers from their compatriots in the Boland. The gabled Cape-Dutch houses became fewer and fewer and the ox-wagon or the makeshift hartebeeshuis became the abode of the trekker.

These trekkers consisted of individuals with a common social and cultural heritage living in isolation from the rest of the civilized world. Although these people were of Dutch, German, or French stock and carried with them

⁹Ralph Horwitz, The Political Economy of South Africa (London: Weidenfeld and Nicolson, 1967), p. 13.

into new frontiers a European cultural framework, many of their values changed under the impact of the new environment.

. . . the difference in environment was that between the neat, fertile, crowded lands of Holland or North Germany and the empty, arid sweep of veld and mountain, where hostile natives lurked; a difference comparable, in the cultural context, to that between Nederlands and the new language, Afrikaans.¹⁰

Isolation was a factor that contributed towards the development of Afrikaans. It was this language and its struggle for existence and recognition that later bound the trekkers together as Afrikaners.¹¹

Isolation was also a factor that led to the individualistic, and often stubborn, character and yearning for independence of the Afrikaner. This partly explains the fact that Afrikaners did not easily submit to foreign rule. This characteristic often led to much dissension amongst the Afrikaners themselves when it came to administrative, political, and educational matters. It was particularly true in the first three decades after the formation of the Union in 1910.

Also developing from isolation were some of the

¹⁰ Sheila Patterson, The Last Trek: A Study of the Boer People and the Afrikaner Nation (London: Routledge and Kegan Paul Ltd., 1957), p. 277.

¹¹ The term "Afrikaner" denotes a white inhabitant of South Africa whose home language is Afrikaans. The official Afrikaans Dictionary, Woordeboek van die Afrikaanse Taal (Pretoria: 1950), defines "Afrikaner" as "one who is Afrikaans by descent or birth, one who belongs to the Afrikaans-speaking population group."

characteristic social habits of the pioneer farmers. The lonely and isolated farmer welcomed any visitor who could bring news or take messages with him when he left. The scarcity of social communication was a factor that contributed to a tradition of hospitality. South Africans pride themselves on this tradition.¹²

It is important to note that the pioneers did not live in isolation as individuals but that they lived together in closely-knit families, or groups of families. The family formed an almost self-sufficient unit, providing for most of its needs through its own efforts. All members of the family were co-operatively engaged in the efforts to satisfy the needs of the group.¹³ It was important for the boys to learn to ride a horse and to shoot. This was not only for the purpose of foodgathering but also for defence. There were no organized military groups and military training was not characteristic of the Boer way of life. The commando system was sometimes used whereby volunteers were called

¹² Herb Gish, manager of the U.S.A. track team that visited South Africa in 1931, on his return wrote: "Our first impression of South Africa was a true and lasting one--that our hosts were a cordial, lovable people, most hospitable, with a keen interest in athletics and sports. As a matter of fact we could not help liking all South-Africans because they are all so 'American'." (Herb D. Gish, "With the American Track Team in South Africa, 1931," American Journal for Health, Physical Education and Recreation, III, [May, 1932], 14).

¹³ R. W. Wilcocks, "Bestendigheid en Verandering in die Lewenshouding van die Afrikaner," in Kultuurgeskiedenis van die Afrikaner, ed., by P. de V. Pienaar (Cape Town: Nasionale Boekhandel Beperk, 1968), p. 96.

upon to go on punitive expeditions.

It is apparent that the main social and economic unit was the patriarchal family. At the head of the family was the Boer, in his role as husband and father, farmer, hunter, and frontier fighter. Respect for the parents (as prescribed by the Bible) was characteristic of the pioneer children. This respect is reflected in the Afrikaner custom of using the third person singular for direct address of the parents. The second person singular ("you") was never used. This respect was shown to all adults. The position of the children is often described by the older generation as "children should be seen, not heard." This attitude was also reflected in the educational system.

Religion played a dominant role in the life of the pioneers. This was not only reflected in their education but also in the social life of the Boers. The nachtmaal (communion) was the main social event in the life of the pioneer family. The frontier farmer was prepared to leave everything for a few days to travel by ox-wagon to the nearest gathering for the communion that was held every three months. This was also the occasion for replenishing household needs and catching up with social gossip. The older generation to this day still spend much of their leisure time sitting on the stoep and enjoy talking to anyone willing to listen. It is probably because of this quest for news and conversation that an event such as the nachtmaal--which in the first place, was a religious event--was not marked by any

sporting events or other forms of entertainment. James Mackinnon describes the nachtmaal atmosphere as follows:

Many, having come from far, have to pitch tents and live a camp life for the time being. . . . A good deal of business is done during the day when the people are not attending service, except of course on Sunday. . . . In the evening they may be seen after service, moving about the camp, greeting each other, engaging in friendly conversation, or discussing the agricultural prospects . . . In some tents family worship is being held, of which the singing of Dutch psalms forms a part, . . .¹⁴

Although the greater part of the pioneer life was one of isolation there were occasional rounds of family visits, and though christenings and birthdays were not celebrated in any big way (mainly because of the distance from the church), there were some social gatherings. The New Year was greeted with volleys of musketry and weddings were usually followed by feasts and occasionally dances for the young people.¹⁵ Most of the Afrikaner festivities, however, were characterized by soberness and seriousness. Coetzee ascribes this to the Calvinistic influence and to the fact that unlike some European festivals, there were no fertility rites involved.¹⁶ Mackinnon comments on the Afrikaners of the previous century:

¹⁴ Mackinnon, South African Traits, p. 287.

¹⁵ Eric A. Walker, A History of South Africa (2nd ed. London: Longmans, Green and Co., 1940), p. 52.

¹⁶ A Coetzee, "Die Afrikaner se Volkskunde," in Kultuurgeschiedenis van die Afrikaner, ed., by Pienaar, p. 116.

Nothing but the most insipid amusements are countenanced by the powers that be. Dancing, billiards, whist are branded as dissipation, and indulgence in such worldly affections is sufficient to bring harsh censures by the score down upon the offender's head. It is curious how sour and dull a blind attachment to the old and narrow casuistry can make one, even where nature is so enticing to mirth and innocent fun.¹⁷

Nathan pictures the Boer social life as follows:

The stricter Boers had few worldly pleasures. Anything except the reading of religious books and the singing of hymns was frowned upon by them . . . But the gayer spirits were not always damped, and at times there was dancing, and the singing of songs. They had to improvise their own amusements, for there was little communication with the outer world, letters taking months to reach the laagers from the Cape. There were no envelopes, and letters were clipped together, the address being written at the back. Newspapers came but rarely, and a copy went the round of the settlement.¹⁸

It is unlikely that the Calvinistic influence was so strong that it completely suppressed all forms of feasting or pleasure-making. The answer to the lack of evidence in Afrikaans literature about pleasure-making could possibly be found in the fact that frivolous activities were not widely publicized.

Afrikaner people lean heavily on their past. This is reflected in large national celebrations, unveiling of large monuments, and periodical gatherings at national shrines, and addresses by political leaders. In its historical descriptions the Afrikaner people have created

¹⁷ Mackinnon, South African Traits, p. 35.

¹⁸ Manfred Nathan, The Voortrekkers of South Africa. From the Earliest Times to the Foundation of the Republics (London: Gordon and Gotch, Ltd., 1937), p. 35.

a traditional historical image of the Afrikaner that hardly extends beyond the Great Trek and does not approach much beyond the Anglo-Boer War.¹⁹ "Voortrekker-worship" maintains the image of the early Afrikaner and is strongly determined by the Old Testament and it is therefore believed that the Boers were firmly attached to the Bible. Afrikaans literature will endeavour to protect and promote the image of piety and sobriety connected with the early culture in which the language found its origin.

The Bible was the only civilizing factor as the pioneers moved further away from the Cape. The Bible, the basis of the Reformation and Protestantism, did not only serve to strengthen the faith of the trekkers but also served as a guideline and source of knowledge about administration, everyday events, and moral codes. The Bible was as much a part of the equipment of the pioneer as was his wagon and gun. It is not unexpected that religion dominated the education of the pioneer children. During the Batavian regime (1803-1806), the enlightened administrators sent out to the Cape attempted to introduce an educational system that was free of the control of the church. This progressive step, however, met with such great antagonism from the local inhabitants that it contributed greatly to the failure of most of the measures introduced by the Batavian authorities

¹⁹ F. A. van Jaarsveld, The Afrikaner's Interpretation of South African History (Cape Town: Simondium Publishers, Ltd., 1964), p. 57.

to improve education.²⁰

The migratory nature of the pioneer life made it difficult to establish permanent schools with the result that education depended heavily on the availability of the itinerant teachers. Religion compensated for the lack of formal education by maintaining a fair standard of civilization and culture among the trekkers. The Church proved to have been the greatest single educational force in the greater part of South African history.²¹

The form and function of physical education and other aspects of education were considerably influenced by the fact that these people had a physical frontier to conquer. In an environment where everybody had to work if the group were to survive, play came after work and was regarded as frivolous. The hardness of life on the frontier provided for the development of the body but not for the development of organized play.

In order to survive, the pioneers had to acquire certain physical skills and a reasonable level of fitness. It was essential for the men to be able to shoot and ride well. Physical activity formed part of their daily life.

Like the adults the children received most of their education from life experiences. Boys and girls at an early age learned to perform skills necessary for the survival

²⁰ Walker, A History of South Africa, p. 149.

²¹ Pells, Education in South Africa, p. 1.

of the group. Apart from riding and shooting they learned the signs of the veld and the sky and helped their parents with the daily work. However, when there was a prolonged halt a temporary school was established. When children were not busy herding the livestock or tending to household duties, they were required to attend these schools.²² The atmosphere in these schools was formal and discipline was strictly enforced.

. . . Johanna Petronella Smit, who went to school at Bushman's River (Estcourt) states that the teacher, Bernard Oppel, was "as strict as the devil." The children's dresses were changed every Saturday, and if there was a stain on them they were punished. There was a daily inspection of their attire as they entered the school, and hats and kappies had to be taken off to see if the hair was properly brushed. The teacher looked to see if their finger nails were short and clean. He used a large saucepan cover as a blackboard, and for corporal punishment, a piece of buffalo hide. Every child had a quill pen, with which it pointed to the words in the reading-books. With perfect impartiality, Mr. Oppel beat his wife with the buffalo hide because she wrote something in a child's book.²³

The almost exclusively religious content of the curriculum of the schools did not leave any scope for physical education in any form. The work ethic of the Trekkers made school a serious business and not much different from work.

It can be concluded that formal education (and to an even greater extent physical training) had no regular place in the life of the early South African settlers.

²² Nathan, The Voortrekkers of South Africa, p. 35.

²³ G. S. Preller, Voortrekkermense, quoted in Nathan, The Voortrekkers of South Africa, p. 35.

In a situation of hardship and insecurity where there was no clear distinction between work-time and free-time, play and recreation did not occupy a distinct position. In 1885 W. D. Moodie wrote:

Very few of the colonists can find leisure from their more important avocations, to indulge in any amusements to an undue degree. Their farms require constant personal superintendence; and when they do indulge in the favourite sports of the country, it is at times when they have not more useful occupations. In hunting the wild animals they feel that they are usefully employed, either in ridding the earth of dangerous and destructive creatures, or in providing food for their families, and thus economising their other means of support.²⁴

Because of the material situation and the Calvinistic values of the pioneer, education fitted into the value system only to the extent to which it contributed towards equipping the young for church membership. Secular education, and to an even greater degree, physical training, were not considered valuable at that time.

²⁴J. W. D. Moodie, Ten Years in South Africa (London: Richard Bentley, 1835), p. 264.

CHAPTER III

PRE-UNION ATTEMPTS TO INTRODUCE PHYSICAL EDUCATION INTO SCHOOLS

1839-1910

Patterns of education (and consequently also the programme of physical education within an educational system) are generally influenced by the degree of interaction of at least three basic elements: contact with other cultures, traditional beliefs and institutions, and the indigenous attempts to innovate and experiment with new ideas.¹ An overview of the historical development of education and physical education in South Africa before 1910 makes it clear that only the first element, namely the contact with a foreign culture, was present in a positive way. Although individuals of foreign background made attempts to introduce physical education into the schools during this period, the traditional beliefs and institutions as well as a lack of genuine need and desire by the local inhabitants to adopt such an activity, were not conducive to the success of physical education.

As a result of the Great Trek various Boer settlements rose across the Orange and Vaal rivers. In 1852 the

¹Andreas Kazamias and Byron G. Massialas. Tradition and Change in Education: A Comparative Study (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall Inc., 1965), p. 168.

South African Republic (Transvaal) and in 1854 the Orange Free State were recognized as independent republics by the British authorities. The Republic of Natal had been established in 1838 but was, in 1843, annexed by Britain.² The total white population of Southern Africa had by 1854 grown to more than 160,000 people.³ It became necessary to make improved provision for the education of the growing population. In this process physical education sometimes received consideration as a school subject.

Developments in the British Controlled Colonies

(1) The Cape Colony:

In 1820, at the time of Lord Charles Somerset's rule, various groups of British settlers arrived. By 1825 the white population of the Cape Colony was given as 50,613.⁴ Provision had to be made to improve the existing educational system. The "deplorable and inefficient" state of public education attracted the attention of people like Colonel John Bell, the British Secretary of the Government, and Sir John Herschel, who visited the Cape in 1832 "in search

² State of South Africa, Yearbook, 1969 (Johannesburg: Da Gama Publishers, Ltd., 1969), p. 19.

³ Population figures were given as follows: Cape Colony (1856) 111,956; Natal (1852) 7,629; Orange Free State (1854) 15,000; Transvaal (1854) 25,000, (George W. Keeton, The British Commonwealth. The Development of its Laws and Constitution: The Union of South Africa [London: Stevens and Sons, Ltd., 1960], pp. xxii-xxiii).

⁴ Ibid., p. xxiii.

of scientific objects."⁵

The most important event of the first half of the nineteenth century in the history of education in South Africa was the organization of education under a full-time paid official, the Superintendent-General of Education for the Cape Colony. Dr. James Rose-Innes, who arrived in 1822 with several instructors sent out by the British government to teach English in the country districts, was appointed as the Superintendent-General of Education in the Cape Colony in May, 1839.⁶ This was a relatively progressive step for that time. Pells sees the appointment of Rose-Innes as the first Superintendent-General of Education of the Cape Colony in the following light.

It is remarkable that such an appointment should have been made at this time in a country where the dominant educational tradition was, at most, controlled through the church.

No country in the world has as yet made such an appointment. . . . Yet not only was the appointment made, but, as important, the right man was given the post. In consequence, education made a century's advance in two decades. All this was the result of the benevolent intrigue of a small group of altruistic intellectuals who happened to find themselves together in this out-of-the-way corner of the globe during the years 1836 to 1839. It is probably the best instance in South African history of how the endeavours of a handful of far-sighted men can bring about a reform which in the normal course of events would have taken 100 years. These men were Sir John Herschel, John Fairbairn, Colonel John Bell, and Sir George Napier.⁷

⁵ John C. Chase, The Cape of Good Hope and the Eastern Province of Algoa Bay (London: Pelham Richardson, 1842), p. 142.

⁶ Ibid.

⁷ Pells, Education in South Africa, p. 21.

It is apparent that education and therefore physical education, in the Cape Colony, in fact in South Africa, owes much to British influence.

It is noteworthy that the Dutch Reformed Church was an important agent in assisting Rose-Innes. Its ministers gave him enthusiastic support without which innovations would have failed. The predikant (minister) did not only give moral support but invariably accepted the chairmanship of the local school committee. This did much towards eliminating local suspicion of English rule and English educational ideas.⁸

After a visit to Scotland Rose-Innes, in 1841, brought back with him new ideas on teaching methods as well as five teachers to assist him.⁹ However, neither Rose-Innes nor his follower, Sir Langham Dale, gave any attention to physical education.¹⁰

"Organization ought to keep pace with growth" was the motto of a Scotsman, Sir Thomas Muir, who was the Superintendent-General of Education in the Cape Colony from 1892 to 1915. Muir came from the Glasgow High School where he had been head of the department of mathematics. Not only did he do much to improve education in general but also promoted physical education in the schools.

⁸ Ibid., p. 26.

⁹ G. E. Cory, The Rise of South Africa, Vol. IV, p. 218.

¹⁰ Kelder, "Liggaamsoefeninge in Onderwysdepartemente," p. 116.

The accelerated development of education during Muir's regime was part of the overall progress that resulted from the two discoveries that set the course of South African history in an entirely different direction. The wealthiest diamond deposits in the world were discovered at Kimberley in 1870 and the great goldfields of the Witwatersrand in the Transvaal were opened in 1886.¹¹ Once the permanence of these deposits had been established, large numbers of foreigners began to flow into the country.

Cecil John Rhodes, a British imperialist, was one of these uitlanders (foreigners). Gradually uitlanders such as Rhodes and Barney Barnato, managed to gain control of the mines by buying out small operators. Rhodes owned the De Beers Company which merged with other companies in 1888 to form the De Beers Consolidated Mines Limited, a gigantic organization which contributed towards making Rhodes the richest and most influential man in South Africa.¹² Rhodes became Prime Minister of the Cape Colony in 1890. It was in this capacity as Prime Minister that Rhodes, on one of his periodical visits to Britain, interviewed and selected Muir for the post of Superintendent-General of Education in 1892.¹³

¹¹ Alfred Hillier, South African Studies (London: Macmillan and Co., Ltd., 1900), pp. 18-22.

¹² P. L. Scholtz, "The Cape Colony, 1853-1902," in Five Hundred Years. A History of South Africa, ed., by C. F. J. Muller (Pretoria: Academica, 1969), p. 163.

¹³ W. J. de Kock, ed., Dictionary of South African Biography (Cape Town: Nasionale Boekhandel Beperk, 1968), Vol. I, p. 567.

By that time Rhodes had established enough capital to finance his project of expanding the British Empire northwards into the African continent.

During and after the Anglo-Boer War the Cape Colony made economic progress because the farmers who had no need to get involved with the war prospered by supplying the Imperial Forces with agricultural and other products. It was also the inhabitants of the Colony who had to meet the demands of the concentration camps that were set up for the women and children of the Transvaal and the Orange Free State burghers. The presence of the officers and men of the Imperial Forces of that time not only led to an improvement in the economy of the Cape Colony but the contact that was made with the foreigners had a "broadening influence on men's minds."¹⁴ It is logical that education shared in this progress.

Muir brought about many educational innovations and improvements. He paid particular attention to the training of teachers. Because of a lack of qualified teachers in "special subjects" provision was made for courses in singing, needlework, domestic science, woodwork, drawing, and physical education.¹⁵ This is an indication that some form of physical education had by that time been included in some schools as a

¹⁴Pells, Education in South Africa, p. 65.

¹⁵P. S. du Toit, "Onderwys in Kaapland," in Onderwys in Suid-Afrika, 1652-1956, ed., by J. Chris Coetzee (Pretoria: J. L. van Schaik Beperk, 1958), p. 82.

"special subject."

Holiday courses were organized to introduce Swedish gymnastics to teachers in 1892. Fifty-two of the ninety-two teachers managed to pass a similar course held in 1893.¹⁶ In 1895 another course of Swedish gymnastics was held for teachers.¹⁷ The Swedish system was having some influence in British Physical education at that time and it is therefore not surprising that Muir promoted the introduction of this system in the schools of the Cape Colony.

During the regime of Muir the class teacher usually took charge of physical education. There were, however, some girls' schools that made use of the services of trained British female teachers.¹⁸ In spite of these developments Muir was not satisfied with the state of affairs as it concerned physical education in the schools. In 1909 he made the following comment:

It would be a great step forward if our High School boys also had classes in physical education from similarly trained teachers who could organize and supervise their school sport. As the matter stands, it is the strong boy who gets too much sport and weak boys, on the other hand, who need physical exercise most, who are neglected.¹⁹

Two observations can be made from the above statement.

Firstly, that physical education (specifically referred to

¹⁶Kelder, "Liggaamsoefeninge in Onderwysdepartemente," p. 116.

¹⁷Jooste, "Liggaamlike Opvoeding in Suid-Afrika," p. 33.

¹⁸Kelder "Liggaamsoefeninge in Onderwysdepartemente," p. 116.

¹⁹Postma, Theory of Physical Education, p. 51.

as physical exercising) had health and probably remedial aspects as its main justification for inclusion in the school programme. The fact that Muir encouraged physical education by introducing swedish gymnastics also points in this direction. The second observation that is of significance is the reference made to sport. It seems that the English games influence was not only strong at this time but so much so that in Muir's statement there is a hint of excessive indulgence in sport.

Muir's interest and encouragement had a marked influence on physical education in the schools. Although there was no training centre for physical education teachers during his period of office, forty-seven per cent of the school population in 1901 took part in physical exercising during school hours.²⁰

The presence of the many young British soldiers in the Cape Colony during the Anglo-Boer War contributed to English influences in South African sport. English games and sports, especially rugby, soccer, cricket, and horse racing are very popular and are organized on the same patterns as British sport and occupy a prominent place in South African society. Rugby, for example, is regarded by South Africans as their "national game."

This does not necessarily mean that the English system was adopted in the physical education period on the

²⁰ Jooste, "Liggaamlike Opvoeding in Suid-Afrika," p. 33.

school time table, but it had a strong influence on extra-mural sport after school hours. This practice, that was inherited from the English, still persists in South African schools today--hence the reluctance to introduce formal games into the physical education programme during school hours. In South African schools the belief held by many that sport, in the form of team games, is not strictly "educational" and should be taught and practiced outside school hours, had its origins in this period of the development of physical education in South Africa.

(2) Natal:

During the 1850's various elementary schools were opened all over the colony. Secondary education began with the opening of "Dean Green's Grammar School" in 1849.²¹ In 1859 a physician, Dr. R. J. Mann, was appointed in Natal in a post similar to that of the Superintendent-General of the Cape Colony.²²

In 1886 the Grammar School was given improved facilities and mention was made of exercise beams that were placed around the building for the purpose of improving the physical development of the boys.²³

²¹ Edgar H. Brookes and Collin de B. Webb, A History of Natal (Pietermaritzburg: University of Natal Press, 1965), p. 78.

²² B. R. Buys, "Onderwys in Natal," in Onderwys in Suid-Afrika, ed., by J. Chris Coetzee, p. 212.

²³ Louis Steenkamp, Onderwys vir Blankes in Natal, 1824-1940 (Pretoria: J. L. van Schaik Beperk, 1941), p. 13.

Dr. Mann imported teachers from Scotland and England to improve the standard of education in Natal. By 1887 almost all the teachers in Natal were of foreign origin--the majority from Great Britain.²⁴ The cultural background of these teachers plus the fact that all instruction prior to 1878 was through the medium of English, stamped an English character on education in Natal.²⁵ English traditions were further reinforced by the presence of British troops. The British Garrison that consisted of the 62nd (1st Wiltshire) Regiment, played a considerable role in the social and cultural life in Natal.²⁶ The British ideas and traditions of these soldiers and their influence on social life together with the public school sporting tradition of the officers contributed to the introduction of English games into the Natal school system. Rugby and Cricket became extremely popular in Natal schools.

It was stated in the Education Law of 1877 that physical exercises should be included in the elementary school syllabus.²⁷ By 1878 there were schools that introduced gymnastics.²⁸ Natal followed the example of the Cape Colony in 1900 by organizing a holiday course in Swedish

²⁴ Brookes, A History of Natal, p. 164.

²⁵ Malherbe, Education in South Africa, pp. 190-198.

²⁶ Brookes, A History of Natal, p. 254.

²⁷ Steenkamp, Onderwys vir Blanke in Natal, p. 130.

²⁸ Buys, "Onderwys in Natal," p. 226.

"drill" for teachers.²⁹ The Swedish system was carried out with success in the girls' schools but due to a lack of teachers made little progress in the boys' section.³⁰ Although physical education for boys was neglected, extra-mural sport and games were enthusiastically organized by staff members.³¹ This again was a reflection of the English sports influence in Natal at that time.

Developments in the Boer Republics

During the first decades of the two Boer Republics educational progress was very slow. After 1850, when the Trekkers began to settle down, a demand for teachers was felt. The supply that arrived from the Cape Colony was both poor in quantity and quality. At many farm schools sailors or soldiers who had deserted from the services were appointed as teachers.³²

The curriculum was very narrow and included only a little reading and writing. The rest of the time was devoted to gaining a thorough knowledge of the Bible, memorization of the rites of the Dutch Reformed Church, and the singing of hymns and psalms. The teacher usually

²⁹ Kelder, "Liggaamsoefeninge in Onderwysdepartemente," p. 117.

³⁰ Ibid.

³¹ Ibid.

³² K. J. de Kock, Empires of the Veld (Durban: J. C. Juta and Company, 1904), p. 85.

completed his instruction within three months but well-to-do parents sometimes kept the teacher for six months or more. A child completing such a course was considered as being "learned."³³ Subjects such as geography and foreign languages did not form part of the curriculum and were not taught before regular schools were established in the early 1870's.³⁴ The nomadic, unsettled and isolated life of the Voortrekkers made the establishment of permanent schools difficult.

It should also be noted that educational developments in Natal and in the Cape Colony were the direct results of the efforts of enlightened individuals from England and Scotland. The two Republics did not enjoy the presence of such men. It is significant that major attempts at reform in the Republics came after the defeat of the Boers by the British and were introduced by the newly appointed Director of Education for the Transvaal and the Orange River Colony, Mr. Edmund B. Sargent.³⁵

(3) Orange Free State:

As the result of an inquiry of the Dutch Reformed Church into education in the Orange Free State, Ordinance No. 5, Op het Onderwys voor Blanke Kinderen in den Oranje Vrijstaat,

³³ Ibid.

³⁴ Ibid.

³⁵ J. S. du Plessis, "The South African Republic," in Five Hundred Years. A History of South Africa, ed., by Muller, p. 323.

was passed by the Volksraad (Legislative Council) of the Orange Free State in 1872.³⁶ One of the points in this ordinance was the introduction of a training college for prospective teachers. At this college (Grey College, Bloemfontein), the following subjects were taken by students: Dutch, English, arithmetic, general and local history, Bible history, geography, drawing, religious instruction, singing and gymnastics.³⁷ The inclusion of gymnastics in the training of teachers is an indication that there was some consideration of including physical education in the school programme.

Ordinance No. 5 was the first major step towards the improvement of education in the Orange Free State. Van Schoor puts forward the welfare of the burghers after the discovery of gold and diamonds as the main reason for this relatively early development of organized education.³⁸ It is also at this time that the possibility of general taxation was mentioned for sponsoring education within the province.³⁹ In this respect the Orange Free State was more than two decades ahead of the other provinces. The fact that the Orange Free State did not have financial difficulties to the same degree as the other provinces

³⁶ M. C. E. van Schoor, "Onderwys in die Oranje-Vrystaat," in Onderwys in Suid-Afrika, ed., by Coetzee, pp. 132-33.

³⁷ Ibid.

³⁸ Ibid.

³⁹ Jooste, "Liggaamlike Opvoeding in Suid-Afrika," p. 73.

allowed for prosperity and rapid development in all spheres of society. An increase in the total population⁴⁰ together with an overall improvement in living standards partly explains the establishment of a department for teacher training at Grey College at Bloemfontein.⁴¹

In 1874 the first inspector of schools, Dr. John Brebner, was appointed. A Presbyterian minister from Scotland, Dr. Brebner is regarded as the founder of the education system of the Orange Free State.⁴² One of his most important contributions to education in the Orange Free State was made in the passing of the Burgher Education Act of 1874.⁴³ This act formally introduced physical education into the schools as an examination subject and reflects Dr. Brebner's over-all plan of achieving high standards in the schools by introducing examinations in all subjects.⁴⁴

The Orange Free State was not only the first province to introduce physical education into the schools but the first to make it an examination subject. According to some individuals who attended schools in the Orange Free State, physical education was still an examination subject

⁴⁰ The white population increased from 12,000 in 1854 to 27,000 in 1873. (Walker, A History of South Africa, p. 352).

⁴¹ Walker, A History of South Africa, p. 350.

⁴² De Kock, South African Biography, p. 117.

⁴³ Du Plessis, "The South African Republic," p. 228.

⁴⁴ De Kock, South African Biography, p. 117.

by 1910.⁴⁵ Financial factors played a role in this relatively modern development of physical education in South Africa. It became apparent from a letter written by Dr. Brebner in 1876 that the general education fund would pay the sum of two shillings and sixpence to teachers for each pupil who was instructed in one of the following areas: needlework, drawing, woodwork, or gymnastics.⁴⁶ This phenomenon brings up two considerations. Firstly, what the intentions of the authorities were when they attempted to introduce and make acceptable these subjects in the school curriculum. Secondly, it appears that there must have been some reason for the use of material reward as a motivation for participation in these subjects. One deduction that may be made from this is that there must have been some reluctance to accept these activities in the school curriculum. Whether it was the pupils who were reluctant to take these courses or reluctance of the teachers to teach these subjects is difficult to determine. A possible explanation may lie in the conservatism of the Calvinistic people living in the province at that time. The attitude of the people and the value that they placed on education at this stage would appear to throw some light on this event. As Protestants, all Afrikaans citizens of South Africa attached much value to education but the type of

⁴⁵ Kelder, "Liggaamsoefeninge in Onderwysdepartemente," p. 121.

⁴⁶ Malherbe, Education in South Africa, p. 372.

education that they believed in was "book" education.⁴⁷ Add to this the fact that the white man of that time had ample non-white labour to do his manual work for him and it becomes evident that the white man would not want to pay much attention to any other type of education than academic training.⁴⁸

Under the guidance of Dr. Brebner, education in the Orange Free State made rapid progress. This province became the first to introduce compulsory education (1895). The number of government schools had grown from ten in 1874 to 119 in 1898 and the number of students increased by almost fourteen times over the same period.⁴⁹

In the period 1900 to 1904 physical education is mentioned in primary and secondary school reports.⁵⁰ It is assumed that physical exercising and gymnastics were continued in the schools. The fact that a lady was appointed in 1908 in the Normaalskool in Bloemfontein for the purpose of organizing games⁵¹ points to the fact that physical education was not only continued but expanded to include games. This is also an indication that the English influence was felt

⁴⁷ E. G. Malherbe, "Technical Education in South Africa," The Year Book of Education, 1939, p. 665.

⁴⁸ Ibid.

⁴⁹ DeKock, South African Biography, p. 117.

⁵⁰ Kelder, "Liggaamsoefeninge in Onderwysdepartemente," p. 121.

⁵¹ Ibid.

in some schools. This must have been the result of the presence of English teachers who had come to teach in the Orange Free State. Two years later another female teacher was appointed at the Normaalskool as an assistant teacher in "orde oefeninge" (order exercises).⁵² Although games played a prominent role in the school, the influence of the Swedish system comes forward in this appointment.

(4) Transvaal

The first educational legislation was passed here in 1874. This was the outcome of the "Report of the Pretorian Committee appointed on the 18th February, 1873 to prepare a Scheme of Education for the South African Republic."⁵³ Law No. 4 of 1874 included recommendations on the content of the school curricula. For ordinary elementary education, reading, writing, arithmetic, Dutch, history, geography, and singing were prescribed. For comprehensive elementary schools the following subjects were added: English, nature study, mathematics, agriculture, handicrafts, and gymnastics.⁵⁴

The English Superintendent-General of Education, Dr. Lyle, replaced the 1874 Act by a new educational system

⁵² Ibid.

⁵³ J. Chris Coetzee, "Onderwys in Transvaal," in Onderwys in Suid-Afrika, ed., by Coetzee, p. 226.

⁵⁴ Ibid., p. 267.

in 1878. Gymnastics did not appear in the new scheme.⁵⁵

By the outbreak of the Anglo-Boer War, education in the Transvaal was in a poor state. This was further aggravated in 1899 by the resignation of S. J. du Toit, the Superintendent-General of Education.⁵⁶

When the British took over the Republics during the War it was found that little provision had been made for the education in the Transvaal. The Boer authorities had given all their attention to the fighting. Mr. Edmund Sargent (who had been educated at Rugby, the University College of London, and Trinity College, Cambridge), was appointed Director of Education for the Transvaal and the Orange River Colony.⁵⁷ At the time of his appointment he found that education in the Republics was in a deplorable state.

Sargent was an energetic and enthusiastic worker and his dedication to the education of the Boer was not merely an expression of his imperialism but a genuine desire to benefit those who were to learn the English language. In 1901, Sir Alfred Milner, the Governor of the Transvaal and the Orange River Colony wrote: "He [Sargent] is at once enthusiastic and businesslike, quite free from pedantic ideas . . . and gets on capitally

⁵⁵ Kelder, "Liggaamsoefeninge in Onderwysdepartemente," p. 119.

⁵⁶ Du Plessis, "The South African Republic," p. 256.

⁵⁷ De Kock, South African Biography, p. 686.

with the people."⁵⁸

Sargent set up his educational headquarters at a refugee camp, Irene, near Pretoria. He also imported teachers from England, Canada, and Australia.⁵⁹ These teachers were sent to rural communities and were "mostly ladies fully certified and many of them trained as infant mistresses and specially qualified in singing."⁶⁰

At the Treaty of Vereeniging on May 31, 1902, the two Boer republics, Transvaal and the Orange Free State, became British colonies.

It can be accepted that the character of educational reforms after 1902 was English. The old system of "Christian National Education" was replaced by liberal secular schools.⁶¹ Sargent's experience amongst the Boers convinced him that exclusively English medium education was both desirable and practical. He was convinced of the idea that English would ultimately become South Africa's only language and that Boer children should be equipped to deal with the situation.⁶²

During the War many teachers, especially the Dutch teachers, were unemployed and lived in poverty. In 1901 a

⁵⁸ Extract from a letter from Sir A. Milner to Mr. Chamberlain, in Cecil Headlam, ed., The Milner Papers. South Africa, 1899-1905 (London: Cassell and Company Ltd., 1933), Vol. II, p. 216.

⁵⁹ Headlam, The Milner Papers, Vol. I, p. 243.

⁶⁰ Coetzee, "Onderwys in Transvaal," p. 276.

⁶¹ Du Plessis, "The South African Republic," pp. 323-324.

⁶² De Kock, South African Biography, p. 686.

commission called the Vriendekring was established by teachers in Pretoria to assist needy colleagues and their families. Shortly after the War this commission was extended in its function to become the Algemene Kommissie tot Behartiging van die C.N.O. (General Commission dealing with Christian National Education). The aim of this commission was to work towards promoting education on the lines of the voluntary Christian (church controlled) education that had existed in the Transvaal prior to the War. This type of control was a reaction against the English system and endeavoured to build on the religion, language, history, and culture of the Boerenasie (Boer nation).⁶³

In the C.N.E. policy the word "Christian" is associated with the Calvinist creed, and the term "National" equated with Afrikaner nationalism. The C.N.E. has been so closely related with Afrikaner nationalism that to many Afrikaners it indeed means Calvinist Afrikaans education. The Calvinist Church, the Afrikaans language, and the National Party are considered by many conservative Afrikaners as the pillars of the Afrikaans culture.⁶⁴

Under the C.N.E. system compulsory subjects in the schools were to be Bible history, Dutch, writing, arithmetic, singing, recitation, South African history and geography.

⁶³ Coetzee, "Onderwys in Transvaal," p. 283.

⁶⁴ Leo Marquard, The Peoples and Policies of South Africa (4th ed., London: Oxford University Press, 1969), p. 197.

Because a knowledge of English was useful under the circumstances prevailing after the Anglo-Boer War it was included in the syllabus. Of physical education there was no mention.⁶⁵ The C.N.E. schools made rapid progress mainly because the Boers did not want to send their children to the schools controlled by the English. The Dutch public was hostile to teachers who could not speak their language.⁶⁶ The Dutch Reformed Church resented the fact that the English took away its control over education. The predikants insisted that teachers should be appointed by school committees selected by the people and that the Dutch and English languages be placed on an equal footing in the schools.⁶⁷

In the Education Act of 1902 provision was made for the establishment of additional schools in the Transvaal. Special mention was made of plans for the education of physically disabled children. One major recommendation was that one of the subjects for the elementary schools should be "physical exercising."⁶⁸ By 1903 there were 252 schools with an estimated 19,000 children in the Transvaal doing physical exercises during school hours.⁶⁹ It is not unexpected to find that physical education in the C.N.E.

⁶⁵ Coetzee, "Onderwys in Transvaal," p. 284.

⁶⁶ Headlam, The Milner Papers, Vol. I, p. 278.

⁶⁷ Ibid., p. 513.

⁶⁸ J. Chris Coetzee, Onderwys in die Transvaal, 1838-1937 (Pretoria: J. L. van Schaik Beperk, 1941), p. 79.

⁶⁹ Jooste, "Liggaamlike Opvoeding in Suid-Afrika," p. 72.

system was included in the form of "physical exercising" with its emphasis on health, posture, and discipline. This reflects the cultural orientation of the Transvaal burghers. This conservative, serious outlook of the Transvaalers formed a contrast with that of the English-speaking inhabitants of Natal where games and sports received far more recognition and support than, for example, the Swedish system.

In 1906 Transvaal was granted self-government with Lord William Selborne as governor and General Louis Botha as premier. General Jan Smuts was appointed as Minister of Education. Smuts drew up a guide line for education and this was passed by Parliament and came into effect in October 1907. This Law No. 25, remained, with some minor changes, in operation until 1953.⁷⁰

General Smuts showed a great interest in physical activity and outdoor life.

He took good care of his body and jestingly commended his example to his friends. "Physical fitness," he told them, "should be viewed in a religious light, and we should care for our bodies even more than for our souls. For if we love not our bodies that we can see how can we love our souls which we have never seen"? . . . He seldom if ever let a week go by without taking some hard physical exercise. By way of comment upon an assertion by Dr. Malan that he was a physical and mental wreck he climbed Table Mountain rather faster than his usual cracking pace. Climbing was his favourite week-end exercise.⁷¹

At the age of seventy, Smuts was still taking his regular

⁷⁰ Coetzee, "Onderwys in Transvaal," pp. 279-280.

⁷¹ W. K. Hancock, Smuts: The Fields of Force, 1919-1950 (London: Cambridge University Press, 1968), Vol. II, p. 342.

exercise. The following report appeared on the front page of The Cape Times in 1950: "General Smuts who has had a stiff leg since one of his long hikes, a few days ago, had recovered sufficiently yesterday for him to walk about on his farm Irene."⁷²

Smuts was not only a statesman (he later became Prime Minister of South Africa), but he was also a philosopher. In his book Holism and Evolution some idea can be formed of his conception of mind-body relationship.

The radical mistake made by science and popular opinion is the severance of an individual whole, viz., the human personality, into two interlacing entities or substances, the view of life and minds as separate entities of the body.⁷³

It is not surprising that a man of the nature of Smuts would not only retain physical education in the schools but would also attach more to it than merely "physical training." In the Smuts Education Act of 1907, it was prescribed that children should be taught the concepts of "healthy living" by learning handicrafts and taking part in gymnastic exercises.⁷⁴

Worth noting is the fact that it was during the period when Smuts was Deputy Prime Minister, and later, Prime Minister, that interest in physical education was shown by the Union Government. This led to the appointment

⁷² Cape Times (Cape Town), January 12, 1950, p. 1.

⁷³ Leonard, History of Physical Education, pp. 341-42.

⁷⁴ Coetzee, Onderwys in die Transvaal, p. 106.

of the National Advisory Council for Physical Education in 1939, and the formal introduction of physical education in the schools on a national basis (see Chapter IV).

Summary

Looking back over the period prior to 1910 it becomes apparent that efforts to promote physical education were sporadic and without direction. It is significant to note that these isolated attempts were generally made by individuals. People like Muir, Brebner, and Smuts made direct efforts to promote physical education in some of the existing educational institutions but it can generally be said that most of these attempts were unsuccessful and not of long standing.

The fact that these efforts were made on the part of individuals and did not arise from a general need felt by the populace for such activity, may have been one of the reasons for the failure of physical education to take root firmly in South Africa by the beginning of the twentieth century. Attempts to introduce physical education into some schools had been relatively successful only in the larger cities where a change of values had to some extent taken place.

By the end of the nineteenth century the population was still predominantly rural. In 1891 it was estimated that 403,297 people (64.98% of the total white population) could

be classified as rural dwellers.⁷⁵ In an agrarian society conservatism is generally culturally sanctioned.⁷⁶ In the opinion of most of these people the main function of education was to provide the pupils with the necessary knowledge and skills for a successful career. Because of this emphasis the examination bogey in South Africa was and still is a very real one. In 1858 a Board of Examiners was established in the Cape Colony. Fifteen years later, in 1873, the University of the Cape of Good Hope was incorporated as an examining body on the model of the University of London. This Board was retained in the South African school system at the formation of the Union in 1910 and, with some slight modification, still persists to date.⁷⁷

Physical education as a school subject as yet had no place in the values of the majority of the South African population. These people had no need and consequently saw no real purpose for the inclusion of physical activity as part of the education of their young. Add to this their suspicion of foreign (especially British) ideas and it partly explains the failure of physical education in the

⁷⁵ Gordon G. Brown, ed., The South and East African Year Book and Guide for 1938 (London: Sampson Low, Marston and Co., Ltd., 1938), p. 153.

⁷⁶ George M. Foster, Traditional Cultures and the Impact of Technological Change (New York: Harper and Row Publishers, 1962), p. 65.

⁷⁷ O. D. Wolheim, "Education in South Africa," in The South African Way of Life: Values and Ideals of a Multi-racial Society, ed., by G. H. Calpin (London: William Heineman, Ltd., 1953), p. 99.

South African schools in this period.

The Anglo-Boer War retarded educational development in general and did not have any significant impact on physical education in South Africa. Guerilla warfare and the informal nature of the Boer commandos did not lead to conventional military organization. Military drill and physical training consequently were not part of the Boers' war effort.

CHAPTER IV

PHYSICAL EDUCATION AFTER UNIFICATION

1910-1933

On May 31, 1910 the four areas of Southern Africa-- Natal, Orange Free State, Transvaal, and the Cape Colony-- united to form the Union of South Africa. Because of major differences between these four areas the National Convention decided to have a delineation of function between the Central Government and the Provincial Administrations. The provincial governments received limited power which was vested in the Provincial Council. When the National Convention was considering the powers of the Provincial Councils, it provisionally decided that, in view of its national importance, education should be left to the Union Government. But on reviewing the decision, supporters of federation, as opposed to unification, felt that the Provincial Councils had too little power. They insisted on a reversal of the decision on education. This led to a compromise arrangement.¹ Section 85 (iii) of the South African Act of 1910 states the legislative and executive authority as regards "education,

¹Eric A. Walker, ed., The Cambridge History of the British Empire: South Africa, Rhodesia and the High Commission Territories (2nd ed., Cambridge: University Press, 1963), Vol. VIII, P. 670.

other than higher² education, for a period of five years and thereafter until Parliament otherwise provides" would be in the hands of the Provincial Administrator and his Executive.³ The chief officer responsible for education in a province was the Director or Superintendent-General.⁴ Teachers were selected by the representatives of parents of the children who attended the particular school. (This often resulted in prominent sports figures receiving preference when the appointment of physical education teachers was considered). This practice is still followed in three of the provinces. In Natal there were no local authorities and all the control of appointing teachers was vested in the Department of Education and its Director.

A Union Department of Education, under the direct control of the Minister of Education, was established under the Central Government in 1910. This department was in control of higher, and later of vocational and technical education. The provinces were subsidized by the Union Treasury to the extent of fifty per cent of their annual

²Since the South Africa Act does not define the term "higher education" a working definition had to be adopted on the formation of the Union Education Department. It was decided that all education beyond the matriculation standard should be so regarded, this term being understood in the conventional sense derived from the well known matriculation examination of the University of London which is taken at about the age of sixteen.

³Henry J. May, The South African Constitution (2nd ed., Cape Town: Juta and Co., Ltd., 1949), p. 208.

⁴M. C. E. van Schoor, "Onderwys in die Oranje-Vrystaat," in Onderwys in Suid-Afrika, ed., by Coetzee, pp. 161-162.

budget. Not all the money went to education because the Provincial Administrations were also responsible for hospitals and roads within the provinces.⁵ The main responsibility of the Provincial Administrations, however, was education.

The educational system adopted in 1910 was not conducive to national co-operation in education and consequently it followed that education in each province developed on different patterns and at different rates. Physical education followed the same pattern until the late thirties. Because there was no uniform policy on education this led to a lack of agreement on the worth attached to physical education in different areas at different times.

Physical Education in the Provinces

In the Cape Colony Muir's educational reforms continued to make progress. Physical education shared in the progress. It was estimated that by 1911 more than fifty per cent of the school population received regular instruction in physical exercises.⁶ This implies that physical education was not a compulsory subject for all pupils in this province. In 1924 the Education Department suggested that specific time allocations be made for all subjects. Of the 23 hour school week "Religious and Moral Training" received two hours, "Physical Culture" was given one hour.⁷ Compulsory physical

⁵ May, The South African Constitution, p. 209.

⁶ Jooste, "Liggaamlike Opvoeding in Suid-Afrika," p. 33.

⁷ C. T. Loram, "South Africa," Educational Yearbook, 1924, p. 389.

education for all pupils was introduced twenty years later.

In Natal physical education was continued in the schools. Although the extra-mural sports programme received much attention⁸ the physical education period was hampered by a lack of teaching personnel. Although some girls' schools appointed fully competent teachers from over-seas who taught Swedish gymnastics,⁹ the boys' schools did not make similar appointments. It is known that in 1913 cadet-officers took charge of the physical training of the boys in the larger Natal schools. This is not only a reflection of the type of physical education programme offered but also of the worth and role attached to physical education by that particular society at that particular time. Because of the military connotations of "drill" attached to physical education military personnel were considered sufficiently qualified to handle the physical training programme within the school.

In the Orange Free State physical education was retained in some schools. In 1912 students of the Bloemfontein Normaalkollege attended gymnastics lessons at the Polytegniese Kollege. In the same year sixty-four teachers attended a holiday course in physical education. During the following five years holiday courses were held for other subjects but not for physical education.¹⁰ Military personnel

⁸ Brookes, A History of Natal, p. 254.

⁹ Vigor, II (December, 1948), 6.

¹⁰ Kelder, "Liggaamsoefeninge in Onderwysdepartemente," p. 121.

were employed at the Normaalkollege to assist with the instruction of students.¹¹ Here again the physical education programme was of such a nature that military personnel were considered suitably qualified instructors.

In the Transvaal attempts were made to promote physical education. By 1912 training in physical education was offered at the Normaalkolleges of Pretoria, Johannesburg, Heidelberg, and Potchefstroom. The increased attention that physical education received in the schools led the Transvaal Education Department to appoint an Organizer of Physical Education in 1912. The first to fill this post was a Mr. Collard.¹² Collard was an enthusiastic worker and did much to promote physical education in the schools by traveling extensively throughout the province and giving demonstration lessons to teachers. He also promoted swimming in the schools.¹³ In spite of Collard's efforts there was a gradual decline in interest in physical education. It was estimated that by 1921 only one out of every 5,000 teachers was a full time physical education teacher.¹⁴ The reason for this apparent lack of interest and decline of physical education in the Transvaal schools at a time when the subject made progress in the other provinces, must be looked for in the

¹¹ Ibid.

¹² Ibid.

¹³ Postma, Theory of Physical Education, p. 50

¹⁴ Kelder, "Liggaamsoefeninge in Onderwysdepartemente," p. 120.

cultural values and the consequent attitudes of the Transvalers after the Anglo-Boer War. Education and physical education (promoted mainly by foreigners), were not acceptable to the Afrikaners as a result of their reaction against everything introduced by the English. Christian National Education could, to some extent, be blamed for the slow development of physical education in the Transvaal. The outlook of the C.N.E. had its stronghold amongst the Afrikaners in the Transvaal and the Orange Free State but prominent Afrikaner educationists elsewhere did not always agree with the C.N.E. ideal.

National education and teaching must purposely strive towards the ideal of unification of the two white cultural groups into a South African nation with undivided loyalty to one fatherland. . . . the promotion of bilingualism and the cultivation of a correct attitude towards the second language . . . must be an important aim of each school.¹⁵

Developments After World War I

The First World War and South Africa's defence measures influenced the growth of physical education.

In 1912 General Smuts proposed his Defence Bill in Parliament. According to this Bill he proposed that a compulsory cadet system should be applied even in the sparsely populated rural districts instead of just in the large urban

¹⁵ C. F. G. Gunter, Opvoedingsfilosofieë: Op Weg na 'n Christelike Opvoedingsfilosofie (Stellenbosch: Universiteits-Uitgewers en Boekhandelaars [Edms.], Beperk, 1961), pp. 401-402.

schools.¹⁶ This Bill also made provision for compulsory military training and for the withdrawal of Imperial troops from South Africa.¹⁷ In his speech Smuts appealed to the citizens of South Africa for a sense of national responsibility.

General Smuts appealed to all South Africans to rise to the obligations of their status as a young nation bound to defend a country with the world's gold reserves and containing vast undeveloped spaces, "to which no doubt,¹⁸ expanding nations would turn their eyes more and more."

When the First World War broke out, Louis Botha, who was the first Prime Minister of the Union, formed in 1910, had already lost many of his supporters. A portion of the Afrikaner people under James Barry Hertzog had formed the National Party in 1912. The slogan of Hertzog's party was "South Africa First." This was in opposition to Botha's polity of "conciliation" with the British. When the Union government passed a resolution to support the British in the War by invading the German colony of South West Africa, there were many Afrikaners who protested against participation in these "English Wars." This led to a rebellion in South Africa.¹⁹ In spite of this opposition to South African participation in the War, many South Africans volunteered

¹⁶ The Times (London), February 24, 1912, p. 10.

¹⁷ Ibid., May 24, 1912, p. 20.

¹⁸ The Times (London), February 24, 1912, p. 10.

¹⁹ D. W. Krüger, The Making of a Nation: A History of the Union of South Africa, 1910-1961 (Johannesburg: Macmillan [South Africa], Publishers, Pty., Ltd., 1969), pp. 64-67.

and went to England to join various British fighting units. Out of a possible total of 685,000 white men of fighting age, 136,000 enrolled for service and 76,000 went overseas.²⁰ This indicates that there was still a large group of South Africans with feelings of loyalty to Britain.

With the expansion of the Union Defence Force after the War the first physical training course was introduced by Captain Wand-Tetly. This course did not meet with great success and ceased to exist after the departure of Wand-Tetly in 1924. It was only towards the end of 1936 that a similar course was re-introduced by the Union Defence Force.²¹ The attitudes and beliefs of the majority of South Africans are reflected in the failure of this endeavour. Physical training did not have a place in their value system and even in a military situation they could not find much justification for it. This attitude changed rapidly when physical training was presented by South Africans who had gone overseas to receive instruction. Today physical training forms an important part of South African military training.

The South African Police Force also paid attention to physical training and in 1925 Sergeant P. L. Grobberlaar was sent to the Army School of Physical Training in Aldershot, England to qualify as a physical training instructor.²² After

²⁰ Walker, A History of South Africa, p. 564.

²¹ Vigor, II (December, 1948), 6.

²² Ibid.

his return in 1926 the South African Police placed heavy emphasis on physical training and gave many fine displays of mass exercising and gymnastics. This contributed greatly to the introduction and popularization of this aspect of physical education in South Africa. Add to this the displays of Danish and Swedish teams in the forties and it can be conceived why, to many South Africans, the term "Physical Education" today still means mass freestanding exercises and gymnastics.

It was in the twenties that a number of gymnastic clubs were formed. The Y.M.C.A., the Pretoria Gimnastiek-vereniging, the Wanderers Club of Johannesburg, and the Gordons Institute in Cape Town are examples of clubs that promoted physical education. The activities and displays of these movements introduced the general public to a new concept of physical education. However, it must be pointed out that the club movement did not expand beyond the few isolated clubs in the larger towns and cities.²³

The fact that the emancipation of the woman developed rapidly during the war years is reflected in the growth of women's physical education. A significant event in the development of physical education in South Africa occurred in 1921 in Cape Town. The Cape Education Department established a training centre for prospective women physical education teachers at the Cape Training College for Women,

²³ Ibid.

Mowbray, Cape Town.²⁴ Miss Margaret C. Black was the first to be appointed to lecture in this course. She had received her training at Liverpool Gymnastic College, England, and also at Silkeborg, Denmark. After completing her studies, she joined the O.M.A.A.C. in the First World War and worked in the army until 1920. For some years students could take one year's general teacher training followed by two years of physical education.²⁵

Training courses for male students who were to become physical education teachers started fifteen years later. The disparity in time between the development of women's physical education and that of men appears to be pointing to the fact that after the First World War there were many instructors available who could handle the type of physical education that was generally taught to the boys. Because of military training, physical training or "drill" was not completely foreign to male South Africans at that time and therefore there was no urgent demand for qualified male teachers.

Apart from the effects of the war and the relatively progressive introduction of the Mowbray training course in 1921 physical education in South African schools did not make any major progress prior to 1933. Most of the progress continued to be the results of the work of individuals of

²⁴ M. C. Black, "The Training of Physical Education Teachers," Report of the First South African Congress for Physical Education, p. 123.

²⁵ Vigor, I (March, 1948), 28.

foreign origin.

Although unification had taken place in 1910 there remained a lack of uniformity and direction in many fields including education. However, this period marked the development of an environment in which physical education received more attention after 1933.

In spite of the fact that the Act of Union in 1910 formally gave equality to English and Dutch as the official languages of the Union, most of the people were not really satisfied because Dutch was not their spoken language. The struggle of the "First Afrikaans Language Movement" was an important factor in the growth of Afrikaner nationalism. In 1924 Afrikaner nationalism reached a peak when J. M. B. Hertzog, the leader of the National Party, became Prime Minister. In 1925 Afrikaans was recognized as an official language on par with English.²⁶ It was the Afrikaner nationalism that developed in this period that was to have a favourable effect on the growth of South African physical education after 1933.

Socio-economic developments during this period also had a significant impact on the introduction of physical education in the period 1933-1939.

After the discovery of gold and diamonds rapid changes took place in South Africa. The capitalist

²⁶ B. J. Liebenberg. "The Union of South Africa up to the Statute of Westminster, 1910-1931," in Five Hundred Years. A History of South Africa, ed., by Muller, p. 343.

exploitation of the mines, the influx of immigrants with a modern business outlook and the rapid penetration of the country by the railways forced South African development into new channels. A rapid economic transition took place from the old patriarchal regime to the modern commercial and industrial order.²⁷ Wealth came into the hands of a few and the rift between rich and poor became wider.

Financial instability became an international problem after the war and it had a profound influence on the mining industry and agriculture in South Africa. Low agricultural prices combined with the fact that world prices of manufactured goods did not fall to the same extent, affected South Africa's economic development. The slump of the prices for diamonds and wool brought about financial ruin for farmers who already had to contend with a drought that was destined to be the longest South Africa had experienced for almost a century.²⁸ It is against this background that the "Poor White Problem" developed.

In 1928 a Commission was appointed by the Carnegie Corporation with the main purpose of fact finding and diagnosis of the "Poor White Problem." The Commission did not make the poor white as such, its chief object of study but rather concentrated upon the process which led to this

²⁷"The Poor White in South Africa: The Carnegie Commission Report," The Round Table. A Quarterly Review of the Politics of the British Commonwealth Vol. XXIII (April, 1933), p. 607.

²⁸Walker, History of South Africa, p. 617.

rural impoverishment. The report, published in 1932, estimated that between 18 and 22 per cent of the white population (1,800,000) was "very poor"--of which the majority was Afrikaans-speaking.²⁹

One of the main points made by the Commission was as follows:

Rather than calling poor whiteism a disease, it will probably be nearer the truth to speak of it as a symptom of a disease . . . which affects our whole social organism. . . . Any measures which succeed in toning up the health of the whole body politic, socially and economically, will in that same proportion diminish the symptom of poor whiteism.

The problem of the poor white should not be treated as an isolated phenomenon, but rather as the acute manifestation of influences and conditions generally prevalent in our social structure. . . .³⁰

This unfavourable socio-economic situation together with a growth of national pride and consequent efforts to improve the welfare and image of the Afrikaners did not only facilitate the acceptance of physical education after 1933 but also determined the form it was to take in its contribution to nation-building.

²⁹Dorothy Rudd, "The Poor White in South Africa," Quarterly Review, Vol. 270 (April, 1938), p. 320.

³⁰"The Poor White in South Africa," pp. 606-607.

CHAPTER V

THE RISE OF PHYSICAL EDUCATION

1933-1945

When a society is challenged by a social problem it responds by changing its institutions. In almost all the societies of the twentieth century periods of national crisis and overwhelming events have been followed by attempts at major educational reorganization.¹ This also held true for the South African situation. With the growth of a nation and growing national awareness, attempts were made not only to improve the material welfare of the country but also to raise the quality and efficiency of education. During this process physical education also received attention. The need for moral and physical rehabilitation of South African society ascribed a new role and place to physical education.

Afrikaner Nationalism and the Socio-Economic Situation

The influence of nationalism on physical education has been observed in European nations. If a strong state is desired, the need for a strong, healthy people is paramount.² Nationalism, likewise, contributed to the growth of South African physical education.

¹Havinghurst, Society and Education, p. xv.

²Earl F. Zeigler, Problems in the History and Philosophy of Physical Education and Sport (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1968), p. 58.

After the shocking report of the Carnegie Commission a Volkskongress (Conference of the Nation) was held in Kimberley in 1934. At this stage it was realized by both Church and State that something had to be done to lift the people out of the crisis.³

Bidney distinguishes between natural and cultural crises by regarding the former as due to forces largely beyond human control and the latter as humanly created. He defines a cultural crisis as "a state of emergency brought about by the suspension of normal or previously prevailing technological, social, or ideological conditions."⁴ A natural crisis involves "such phenomena as floods, storms, earthquakes, drought, and so forth and tends to disrupt cultural routine and produce states of emergency requiring desperate measures."⁵ It is clear that, at the time of the Report of the Carnegie Commission, South Africa, was in a state of natural as well as cultural crisis and "since man abhors living in a state of natural as well as cultural suspension or in a cultural vacuum and no society can maintain itself for long in a condition of suspension or chaos,"⁶ the tendency was toward reorganization of society

³J. A. Lombaard, "Die Ekonomiese Ontwikkeling van die Afrikaner," in Kultuurgeskiedenis van die Afrikaner, ed., by Pienaar, p. 128.

⁴David Bidney, Theoretical Anthropology (New York: Colombia University Press, 1953), p. 349.

⁵Ibid.

⁶Ibid.

and a resolution of some kind.

Nation-wide attempts were made to lift the Afrikaner out of his demoralization. In the economic sphere the Federasie van Afrikaanse Kultuurverenigings (Federation of Afrikaans Cultural Organizations) did significant work. In 1938 it established the Reddingsdaadbond, a movement intended to save the Afrikaners from penury and to lift them economically and guide them into fields of opportunity in the rapidly growing towns and cities.⁷

Education and Physical Education

In post-war reconstruction, education (and also physical education) received increasing attention. In 1944 W. F. Grant wrote:

Education is the instrument which modern society employs to promote social well-being. In simple language it is the means whereby the State provides for its members to make the best of themselves and to make their fullest contribution to the health, wealth, and happiness of all. The Union of South Africa can be sound, stable and progressive only if it is healthy in all its parts.⁸

With the revision and improvement of the school curriculum physical education was given a prominent place in the school time table. This step reflects a change in attitude towards, and belief in the worth of physical education. Because new values and attributes were attached to it physical education

⁷ Monica Wilson and Leonard Thompson, ed., The Oxford History of South Africa (Oxford: Clarendon Press, 1971), Vol. II, p. 400.

⁸ W. F. Grant, "Union of South Africa," Educational Yearbook, 1944, p. 307.

enjoyed a period of prestige.

Although the movement towards educational change was initiated by the Dutch Reformed Church, the State took over the responsibility in the thirties. In July, 1934 a "Conference of the New Educational Fellowship" was held in Cape Town. The delegates were estimated to have numbered about a thousand.⁹ State expenditure for education was increased from £1,850,000 in 1911-12 to £9,000,000 in 1936. Whereas in 1911-12 this sum comprised fourteen per cent of the total national expenditure on all State services (excluding railways), it comprised twenty three per cent in 1936.¹⁰ The number of pupils rose from 178,000 white pupils in 1911-12 (which left roughly 100,000 children not attending school), to 400,000 in 1936. Not only did the quantity of education increase but also the quality. The percentage of pupils receiving post-primary education increased from six per cent in 1911-12 to about nineteen per cent in 1935.¹¹

Malherbe points out that South Africa probably had more full-time university students (one in 300), for its white population than any other country in the world at that time.¹² This unprecedented expansion in general

⁹ Brown, South African Year Book and Guide for 1938, p. 42.

¹⁰ E. G. Malherbe, "Cultural and Economic Forces in South African Education," The Year Book of Education, 1936, p. 645.

¹¹ Ibid.

¹² Ibid.

education after the First World War was attributed to two factors. Firstly, the establishment of the Union provided education with more stable financial support, and secondly, the country was slowly but surely beginning to think of its schools in national (i.e., Union), terms.¹³ These factors were also reflected in the interest shown in physical education in this period.

National awareness of crises such as the depression and the two world wars promoted physical education in many countries. In 1933 Jesse F. Williams of Boston, U.S.A., wrote in his article "Physical Education and the Depression":

Now I propose the thesis that physical education has a responsibility for promoting morale . . . During the war, physical education was called upon again and again to perform this vital service . . . I merely state that we can contribute to an improved national morale which is nothing more than the morale of individual men and women. . . . Anything more than a superficial examination of physical activities leads at once to the conviction that here are powerful weapons in the construction of social attitude.¹⁴

The publication of the Carnegie Commission Report in 1932 "so shocked the amour propre of the Union Government"¹⁵ that several investigations were initiated. A medical inspection of white pupils was carried out in 1935.¹⁶ At

¹³ Ibid.

¹⁴ Jesse F. Williams, "Physical Education and the Depression," Research Quarterly, IV (March, 1933), 10-11.

¹⁵ D. Burns, "Physical Fitness of School Children in South Africa," Nature. Weekly Journal of Science, Vol. 151, (June 19, 1943), p. 704.

¹⁶ Brown, South African Year Book and Guide for 1938, p. 42.

the beginning of 1936 a South African Health Congress, to which many prominent individuals from abroad were invited, was held in Cape Town.¹⁷ In 1937 a scheme for the production of a physically "A¹ nation" was introduced in connection with development of defence measures.¹⁸ In the same year a survey of the state of nutrition of the school children of the Union was made. The results of these surveys and others were published in a new journal called Manpower.¹⁹ It was in this journal that Dr. Ernst Jokl published his article on "A National Manpower Survey of South Africa" which dealt with the "Principle of Physical Performance Grids."²⁰ In February 1942 it was announced that the Government would launch a National Health Campaign.²¹ Against the background of these conditions it is not unexpected to find that physical education received increased attention.

Initially various institutions introduced physical education independently of each other but soon it became a national concern.

The Cape Province took the lead by introducing

¹⁷ The Times (London), January 8, 1936, p. 8.

¹⁸ Brown, South African Year Book and Guide for 1938, p. 42.

¹⁹ Burns, "Physical Fitness of Children in S.A.," p. 704.

²⁰ Ibid.

²¹ Keesing's Contemporary Archives - Weekly Diary of Important World Events (Bristol: Keesings Publications Ltd., of London, May, 1942), IV, 5158.

compulsory physical education in the schools in 1935.²²

The motivation for this step came from the report of the Superintendent-General of Education. He stated that "the physical fitness of our pupils leaves much to be desired."²³ Although physical "drill" had been done in primary schools up to this period there had not been physical education for secondary classes. The medical inspectors in all the provinces pointed out that it was at this level that physical education was much needed.²⁴ It appears that the inclusion of physical education in the secondary school curriculum was based on medical needs rather than on educational merit. This was in accordance with the type of rehabilitation needed by South African society at that time.

It became necessary to provide teachers who could carry out the new developments in physical education in the schools. In 1936 the training course for women physical education teachers at Mowbray was modified. For fifteen years physical education students had taken one year of general training followed by two years of instruction in physical education. Because more subjects were added to the general training of teachers, the course was changed to a two-year programme of general education and only one year of

²²H. J. Taylor, "The Administration and Organization of Physical Education in the Cape Province," Report of the First South African Congress for Physical Education, p. 179.

²³Pells, Education in South Africa, p. 106.

²⁴Ibid.

physical education.²⁵

A further innovation occurred in 1936 when a training course for male physical education students was inaugurated at the Paarl Training College. In the same year South Africa's first university course in physical education was introduced at the University of Stellenbosch. Ernst Jokl (M.D.), who came to South Africa from the College of Physical Education, Berlin, was appointed as the head of this new department. At first the course was of one year duration and was open to students who already held a bachelor's degree and a Secondary Teaching Diploma. In 1940 this department became the first in South Africa to introduce a four-year course leading to a degree in physical education.²⁶

Because of the shortage of qualified teachers the task of teaching physical education rested mainly on the shoulders of the general teachers. Holiday courses were held to provide secondary school teachers with a basic knowledge of physical education. Such courses were held in 1936 and 1937 at the Paarl Training College under the guidance of Mr. H. J. Taylor. The lack of provision for physical education was so acute that in April 1938 the larger schools in the Cape Province were required by the Department of Education to give preference to physical education teachers when a

²⁵ Vigor, I (March, 1948), 28.

²⁶ Leonard, History of Physical Education, p. 424.

vacancy occurred on their staff.²⁷

In spite of this shortage of qualified personnel the Cape Education Department in 1938 stated that all schools --high, secondary, and primary--were required to devote at least eighty minutes per week per class to "educational and corrective gymnastics" in addition to extramural sports and games.²⁸ In Natal a minimum of ninety minutes per week was set aside for physical education.²⁹

In 1939 qualified physical education teachers were appointed at various training institutions in the Cape Province to give instruction in gymnastics, games, swimming, and track and field. This was part of the two-year general training course for teachers. Five periods per week were devoted to physical education in addition to the extramural sports and games. The reason for this step was to meet the needs of the fifteen-hundred small primary schools of the Cape Province.³⁰

In 1939 the Cape Education Department appointed Mr. H. J. Taylor of the Paarl Training College and Miss M. M. Logeman of the Good Hope Seminary, Cape Town, as the

²⁷ Taylor, "Physical Education in the Cape Province," p. 180.

²⁸ Ibid.

²⁹ E. Braham, "The Organization of Physical Education in Natal," Report of the First South African Congress of Physical Education, p. 176.

³⁰ Taylor, "Physical Education in the Cape Province," p. 180.

Department's supervisors for men's and women's physical education respectively.³¹ Other provinces followed with similar appointments. In the Orange Free State Mrs. A. I. Salmon and Mr. A. Van der Plaat were appointed as organizers of physical education.³² A one year training course for physical education teachers was also introduced in the same year at the Bloemfontein Normaalkollege.³³ There was also a need for training institutions for the English-speaking population. In 1938 a Department of Physical Education was approved for the Witwatersrand Technical College, Johannesburg.³⁴

In 1941 a one-year course in physical education for women was started at the Graaff-Reinet Training College.³⁵ Other training colleges followed and also introduced physical education courses. Such courses were provided at Bloemfontein, Potchefstroom, and Heidelberg.³⁶ These colleges catered for the training of primary school teachers only.

Apart from the development of physical education in the colleges, the Education Departments in the other provinces

³¹Du Toit, "Onderwys in Kaapland," p. 97.

³²A. Van der Plaat, "Liggaamsopvoeding in die O.V.S.," Report of the First South African Congress for Physical Education, p. 170.

³³Ibid.

³⁴Leonard, History of Physical Education, p. 424.

³⁵Taylor, "Physical Education in the Cape Province," p. 180.

³⁶Du Toit, "Physical Education in South Africa," p. 60.

followed the example of the Cape Province and introduced compulsory physical education in the schools in the mid-thirties.³⁷

Military developments also had an impact on the growth of physical education in South Africa. Because of growing international crisis physical education was also revived in the Union Defence Force during this period. In 1933 a board, set up to examine about 1800 applicants for twenty cadetships in the Defence Force, was struck by the poor physical condition of many of the applicants and also by the fact that so many youths of high educational attainment confessed that they were unable to get civil employment. The board proposed that a battalion for short-service training should be formed pointing out that in the way of physique the youths could be improved and the channels of employment could be opened.³⁸ In the same year a Special Service Battalion was introduced by the Department of Social Welfare at Robertsheights. The purpose of this Battalion was to "fight the deteriorating influence of unemployment and to provide discipline and training for unemployed boys and young men." In the period 1933 to 1939, 13,815 boys enrolled in this Battalion. After 1939 the Special Service Battalion was changed to the Physical Training Battalion whose purpose was to rehabilitate and educate boys of pre-military age who suffered from physical

³⁷ Postma, Theory of Physical Education, p. 52.

³⁸ The Times (London), March 4, 1938, p. 15.

deficiencies.³⁹ The motto of the Battalion was Mens Sana in Corpore Sano and the object was to "develop citizenship."⁴⁰ Emphasis was placed on all-round training.

In order to achieve a sound mind the Physical Training Battalion employs 4 methods, namely:

1. Schooling
2. Character building
3. Religion and
4. Useful employment of leisure time.

In order to develop a sound body 4 other methods are used, namely:

1. Medical services
2. Physical and remedial training
3. Recreation
4. Military training.⁴¹

This venture apparently was very popular as illustrated in a passage of the London Times of March 4, 1938.

Employers have nothing but praise for the boys they have engaged. The demand for Special Service Battalion boys last year exceeded supply by 800.⁴²

Their physical training was first conducted according to the old British Army syllabus. This was later revised and improved.⁴³

In 1937 systematic physical training in the Union Defense Force was re-introduced and the Physical Training

³⁹ H. J. van Eck, "The Place of Physical Education in Social and Economic Planning," Report of the First South African Congress for Physical Education, pp. 39-40.

⁴⁰ Craven, "The Physical Training Battalion," p. 191.

⁴¹ Ibid., p. 190.

⁴² The Times (London), March 4, 1938, p. 15.

⁴³ E. H. Cluver, "Physical Education as a Preparation for Life," Report of the First South African Congress for Physical Education, p. 90.

Branch of the South African Military College was formed under the guidance of Major A. Barlow.⁴⁴ Prospective instructors were sent for training to the Army School of Physical Training, Aldershot, England, to overcome the shortage of qualified personnel.⁴⁵ Some schools made use of military personnel to assist with the physical education programme. At this time physical education and drill were synonymous and it is also significant to note that of the original committee appointed to draw up a physical education syllabus for all schools in the Union in 1940, four of the ten members had military titles.⁴⁶

The military function of physical education had been stressed for many years and during this period it was also frequently emphasized. Dorothy Ainsworth from Massachusetts (who was invited to South Africa in 1960) wrote on the contribution of physical education to morale in times of war and peace:

Physical education has much to contribute to morale . . . Now the extent to which a people are willing to discipline themselves and work as and with a group depends largely upon the matter of morale . . . On the whole morale is stronger when those concerned are well,

⁴⁴ Leonard, History of Physical Education, p. 429.

⁴⁵ Vigor, I (March, 1948), 8.

⁴⁶ National Advisory Council for Physical Education. Physical Education Syllabus. Senior Book I (Pretoria: Government Printer, 1943), p. vii.

strong, and energetic. Since health has been one of our prime objectives, our contribution here is a very tangible one.⁴⁷

In 1943 Lawrence Rarick made a survey that indicated that many physical education departments in American colleges and universities made significant curricular revisions. This was done so that these institutions could be made valuable contributors to the war effort.⁴⁸

The Depression and the Second World War had a similar effect on South African physical education. The effects of these adversities on the people and the economy of the Union brought "increasing realization of the importance of promoting health, content, and prosperity to all its people."⁴⁹ It was during this period that national attempts were made to rehabilitate the nation materially as well as spiritually.

Physical education on a national basis, developed along similar patterns in other countries. In Britain the high rejection rate among recruits for the Anglo-Boer War and the publication of the Rowntree Poverty Report caused much alarm about the physical condition of the population.

⁴⁷ Dorothy Ainsworth, "Our Contribution to Morale in Times of War and Peace," American Journal for Health, Physical Education and Recreation, XIV (February, 1943), 67-68.

⁴⁸ Lawrence Rarick, "College and University Physical Education Programs after One Year of War," Research Quarterly, XIV (May, 1943), 167.

⁴⁹ Grant, "Union of South Africa," p. 307.

The introduction of remedial physical education soon followed.⁵⁰ In the United States a general interest in physical education was aroused as a result of the Selective Service Act of 1917. Great pressure was brought upon the authorities to make physical education a requirement in the public schools.⁵¹

It was during this period that other South African universities inaugurated departments of physical education. The universities of Bloemfontein, Potchefstroom, Pretoria and Rhodes introduced degree and diploma courses for physical education students. Rhodes University is the only English medium university to offer a degree in physical education. It is apparent that physical education in South Africa is dominated by the Afrikaans-speaking institutions and Afrikaans-speaking individuals. This points to the connection between the social and physical needs of the Afrikaner and the introduction of physical education at this time.

The National Advisory Council for Physical Education

Physical education made rapid progress once it received the attention of the Union government. In April, 1937, Jan Hendrik Hofmeyr (then Minister of Education,

⁵⁰J. W. Tibble, "Physical Education and the Educational Process," in Readings in Physical Education, ed., by John E. Kane (London: The Physical Education Association of Great Britain and Northern Ireland, 1966), p. 106.

⁵¹Laurentine B. Collins and Rosalind Cassidy, Physical Education and the Secondary School (New York: A. S. Barnes and Company, 1940), p. 15.

Welfare and Mining) requested the President of the South African Olympic and Empire Games Association to prepare for Cabinet consideration, a memorandum on physical education.⁵² Ernst Jokl was assigned to the task and presented his report to Mr. Hofmeyr on August 13, 1937.⁵³

Hofmeyr himself paid much attention to keeping fit, was a keen cricketer, and spent much of his free time promoting this sport amongst Afrikaans-speaking boys.⁵⁴ Not only did he play cricket and tennis but also took other forms of exercise when there was not enough time for organized sports.

There was always tennis but now he took up tenniquoits, playing it not with a rubber ring but with a heavy medicine ball so that he could get his exercise in a concentrated form. Although he was only five feet seven, he played with the maximum sized ball, of such a size and weight that one had to tense oneself to receive it . . . It was physical exercise that offered relaxation to neither mind nor body, only muscular exertion of the crudest kind . . .

His exercise was that thirty minutes on the roof of the Parliament with a tremendous medicine ball. His only

⁵² In 1937 the supreme body of organized sport in South Africa was the South African Olympic and British Empire Games Association. With the formation of the National Advisory Council for Physical Education reciprocal representation was established between these bodies. (Ernst Jokl, "Physical Education, Sport and Recreation," Handbook on Race Relations in South Africa, ed., by Ellen Hellman and Leah Abrahams [Cape Town: Oxford University Press, 1949], p. 444).

⁵³ Ernst Jokl "A Scientific Syllabus of Physical Exercises for Small Children," South African Journal of Science, 1939, XXXV, 411.

⁵⁴ Alan Paton, Hofmeyr (Cape Town: Oxford University Press, 1964), p. 140.

relaxation was to play cricket on Saturday afternoon with the parliamentary team, of which he was captain . . .⁵⁵

It is not surprising that someone like Hofmeyr would be sympathetic to attempts to introduce physical education as a compulsory subject. He acted on Jokl's report and in 1938 a National scheme for physical education was launched when the Cabinet decided "in accordance with a general desire which had been evinced in the country, to take some such action as had already been taken by most civilized states."⁵⁶ A National Advisory Council for Physical Education (NACPE) was appointed in 1938. The NACPE functioned under the Minister of Education and consisted of the Heads of the Central and Provincial Education Departments; the Departments of Public Health, Social Welfare, Native Affairs, and Railways and Harbours; of representatives of the United Municipal Executive of South Africa and of the South African Olympic and British Empire Games Association; of the Technical Advisor to the Council; and of three members appointed in their personal capacity, namely Dr. R. W. Wilcox (Principal of Stellenbosch University), Dr. E. H. Cluver (South African Institute for Medical Research) and Dr. Jokl (Physical Education Research Officer in the Ministry of Education).⁵⁷

⁵⁵ Ibid., pp. 216,276.

⁵⁶ Jokl, "Physical Education, Sport and Recreation," p. 443.

⁵⁷ Ernst Jokl, "Medical Research in Physical Education in South Africa," Research Quarterly, XX (March, 1949), 88.

From 1938 to 1942 parliament voted annually a sum of £50,000 for the use of the Council. £15,000 of this amount was annually paid to the Provincial Education Departments to promote physical education in their institutions.⁵⁸

Although the NACPE went through an experimental period and functions were continually added, the main concerns of this council were the following:⁵⁹

1. Cooperation with other state departments that were concerned with physical education: The council was conceived as the body that would define policy with regard to physical education within these departments. In many cases where activities were sponsored by government departments they were actually subsidized by the NACPE.

2. Organization of voluntary physical education clubs: By 1948 it was estimated that there were approximately 300 such clubs in the Union with an estimated membership of 40,000. German Turnen was spread by German immigrants, and also by British army instructors and a number of South Africans who had studied physical education in Germany.⁶⁰ Turnen gained considerable ground in South Africa, especially in the clubs. These clubs were distinctly different in character to the British type of sports club that existed at

⁵⁸ Jokl, "Physical Education, Sport and Recreation," p. 443.

⁵⁹ Vigor, II (December, 1948), 6-9.

⁶⁰ K. A. Schrecker, "Fitting the Different Trends into the Physical Education Syllabus," Report of the First South African Congress for Physical Education, pp. 160-161.

the same time. It is noteworthy that this distinction was also marked in the school situation. The distinction still exists today between the gymnastics and physical training orientated character of the physical education period and the British orientated sport and games programme which takes place after school hours and occupies a major role in South African schools. British orientated sports are organized on a club system and are under the auspices of their own national associations. The NACPE worked in close cooperation with these bodies and often subsidized them and provided them with assistance in the organization of vacation courses for coaches in various fields.

3. Provision of recreational facilities: The NACPE publicized the need for recreational facilities and in a large number of cases subsidized bodies to set them up.

4. Preparation of literature and standards: Syllabi for physical education were prepared by the committee appointed by the Council. The first of these was published in 1941. Terminology lists and standard requirements for recreational facilities were prepared.

5. Bureau service: The NACPE dealt with enquiries concerning physical education and recreation from individuals and organizations.

6. Teacher training: For the first seven years of its existence the NACPE subsidized education departments to enable them to carry out their physical education programmes, teacher training and the preparing of syllabi for physical

education in these training institutions. After 1945 these grants were superseded by larger amounts direct from the Union Treasury.

7. Research: The Research Committee of the NACPE did a considerable amount of investigation into the physical efficiency of various groups. It also conducted nutrition surveys and studies of clinical and pathological problems pertaining to physical education.

8. Finance: An annual allocation of £20,000 was placed at the disposal of the Council. Approximately 75% of this amount was spent on physical education and recreation for the general public. The rest was allocated to the five universities with physical education departments.

9. Publicity: The Publicity Committee for State Social Services promoted physical education. This took the form of posters, pamphlets, exhibitions, film productions and talks. In 1947 the quarterly journal Vigor, was published for the first time,⁶¹ and was intended to serve professional physical education teachers. The motivation and intentions of the NACPE are reflected in the first editorial:

. . . Henceforth it will also strive, in co-operation with other bodies, authorities and organs, to make the general public more health conscious and to raise the nation's physical standards from that deplorable C3-- ascribed to us by so many--to the desired A1 . . .

⁶¹ Vigor replaced the journal Physical Education, that had been published by the University of Stellenbosch since 1940. (Vigor, XIX [June, 1966] 3).

The part played by recreation in the betterment of the physical fitness of a nation is all-important, so Vigor will give much attention to this too.⁶²

In order to further promote physical education the NACPE invited Danish gymnasts in 1939, and in 1947 the Swedish, to give displays and demonstrations in South Africa.

The above outline indicates the leading role which the NACPE played in the establishment and promotion of physical education. Because this council controlled almost all facets of physical education in South Africa it seems logical to assume that the policies and intentions of the Government that appointed and controlled it would be reflected in the physical education programme that came under the jurisdiction of this council. It appears that the Council did not only sponsor physical education financially but also prescribed policy and direction to the field.

Foreign Influences

The visit by the Danish and Swedish gymnasts in the forming years of physical education stamped a distinct character on it. It seems obvious that there were many elements in these two European systems that were regarded as beneficial for South Africa by the NACPE and appealed to their concept of physical education. It also seems likely that the German system would have been considered had it not been for the political situation at that time.

The Danish methods demonstrated by Niels Bukh and

⁶²Editorial, Vigor, I (September, 1947).

his gymnasts were reflected in the content, methods, and construction of physical education lessons in many schools and training centres.⁶³ Three members of Bukh's team remained in South Africa and were appointed as instructors in training centres.⁶⁴

The anatomical development of the arms, trunk, and shoulders of the Swedish gymnasts made good propaganda for the kunsturen. The rhythmic and graceful movements designed to exercise as many as possible of the big muscle groups had special appeal to South African women. A member of this team, Gertrude Oertli, returned to South Africa and for many years played a leading role in women's physical education.⁶⁵

Both the Danish and Swedish groups made a considerable impression on South Africans. The fact that these demonstrations were a novelty and something "spectacular" contributed to increasing interest in physical education. It is then not surprising that the elements of the Danish and Swedish systems were strongly represented in the first major physical education syllabus for South Africa.

Apart from the influence of these two European systems there were elements in the German system that were suited to the South African situation, which was at that time economically and socially at a low ebb. Physical education had its

⁶³ Editorial, Vigor, I (March, 1948).

⁶⁴ Leonard, History of Physical Education, p. 427.

⁶⁵ Vigor, XIX (December, 1954), 1.

hey-day in Germany during this period. The success of Germany, building itself up from defeat and economic ruin, appealed to many South Africans. Add to this the success of the German athletes at the 1936 Olympic Games (the South African team gained only two bronze medals at these games) and it becomes clear why the German system made a strong impact on South African physical education. It should also be noted that both Ernst Jokl and K. A. Schrecker, who were early leaders in South African physical education, hailed from Germany.

It has been stated that many Afrikaners were attracted by Hitler's nationalism. Vandenbosch claims that Hitler's Germany was the ideal of many Afrikaners and that organizations faithfully followed Nazi models and practices. At this time various groups were formed amongst Afrikaners in South Africa, for example the Grey Shirts, the Ossewa Brandwag and the Broederbond.⁶⁶ The NACPE and physical education in South Africa could similarly accomplish for the Afrikaner what physical education had contributed to the reconstruction of the German nation.

The appeal of Nazi ideals and their application to South Africa could be stretched too far. Sowden points out a fact that is often overlooked by critical authors, namely that Nazism was, in the eyes of many Afrikaners, the same as

⁶⁶ Amry Vandenbosch, South Africa and the World (Lexington, Kentucky: University Press of Kentucky, 1970), p. 113.

being anti-British which was what Dr. Malan's Nationalists personified. The approval of Nazism by some radicals provided a demoralized and defeated group of Afrikaners with a platform against English threat in South Africa and "anything was good enough if it offered a possible means of damaging British prestige."⁶⁷

The growing Afrikaner awareness and anti-British attitude partly explain the fact that the leaders in physical education (who were almost exclusively from Afrikaans institutions and were either Afrikaans-speaking or of European origin), in the early development of South African physical education compiled their own syllabus rather than use the 1933 British syllabus that was widely in use in the rest of the Commonwealth.

Syllabi for Physical Education

In 1938 Jokl produced the first South African film on aspects of physical education for pre-adolescent children.⁶⁸ Two years later he also drew up the first syllabus for physical education in South Africa. The Syllabus of Physical Exercises for South African Schools (published by J. L. van Schaik, Pretoria) was printed in both English and Afrikaans and the 247 pages covered material ranging from simple mimetic play of children to competitive gymnastics, swimming,

⁶⁷ Louis Sowden, The Union of South Africa (New York: Doubleday, Doran and Co., Inc., 1943), p. 82.

⁶⁸ Jokl, "Syllabus of Physical Exercises for Small Children," p. 410.

and track and field.⁶⁹ In 1941 the Junior Book (for Girls and Boys up to 10 Years), and in 1943 the first major syllabus, Physical Education Syllabus. Senior Book I, was published by the NACPE.⁷⁰

This syllabus has been widely used by teachers and was for many years regarded as the handbook of South African physical education. In spite of the fact that the syllabus is almost thirty years old, it is still regarded by many teachers as an invaluable source of teaching material.

The introductory sentences of the syllabus reflect the philosophy of physical education at that time.

"Tis not a soul, tis not a body we are training up, but a man, and we ought not to divide him into two parts." In these few words Montaigne in the sixteenth century already stated the aims of physical education . . . Physical education is an integral part of general education, which embodies the quintessence of all educational ideals, and aims at educating man in his entirety, i.e., mind, body and soul regarded as an inseparable whole.

The physical education scheme, like education in general, is a complete composition of numerous carefully selected activities, graded and progressively taught. The activities selected are those which will produce the maximum results in promoting health, all-round development, neuro-muscular co-ordination, efficiency and character building.⁷¹

Danish, Swedish, and German influences are strongly represented in the syllabus. These are not only reflected

⁶⁹ Leonard, History of Physical Education, p. 427.

⁷⁰ National Advisory Council for Physical Education, Physical Education Syllabus. Senior Book III (Pretoria: Government Printer, 1952), p. vi.

⁷¹ National Advisory Council for Physical Education, Physical Education Syllabus. Senior Book I (Pretoria: Government Printer, 1943), p. 1.

in its content but also in the lesson atmosphere that it prescribes. Although it disassociates itself from military training and the school cadet movement, it stresses discipline and strict observance of rules. The use of formal class formations is prescribed as "a means of facilitating teaching" and "constitute training in attention, order and precision."⁷² Formations range from free spacing for the younger pupils to the grid system for older students.

While the class marches around the gymnasium in single file, they number off in threes, fours, etc., according to the size of the class and the available space. At a later stage of events the numbering may be omitted. At the command "Up the centre in fours--march"! all the ones form a file, all the twos another, and so on. When the leaders reach their places, give the command "Class--halt"! On "Distance--take"! the files move into open files. Later, the pupils march or run immediately into open files when coming up the centre of the hall in fours.⁷³

Not only the marching but also the use of commands is modelled on the three European systems mentioned. The syllabus gives a lengthy description on the use of commands including the following advice:

The use of commands avoids confusion and disorder, secures uniform work, gives the teacher a better chance of observing the performance, and cultivates such qualities in the pupil as concentration, control and immediate response.⁷⁴

This is very similar to the arguments put forward by the Swedish system of Per Hendrik Ling. The command is broken

⁷² Ibid., p. 19.

⁷³ Ibid., p. 21.

⁷⁴ Ibid., p. 15.

up in military fashion, i.e., the explanatory part, the pause and the executive part.

For example:

Skip jumping--(pause)--begin!
Arms sideways--(pause)--stretch! ⁷⁵

In spite of this apparent formality and strict discipline the syllabus explicitly states that "physical training must be made interesting and enjoyable. The success of the gymnastic lesson will largely depend on the pleasure the pupils derive from it."⁷⁶ It is emphasized that the lesson should not be marred by commands for every small movement and that it is not necessary for the pupils to maintain absolute silence during the lesson. Although the lessons should be conducted in an orderly fashion it must not be performed in the same manner as military drill. This is one of the aspects of the system advocated by the syllabus that makes it lean more towards the Danish than the Swedish system. The absence of many "hold" positions and emphasis on rhythmical execution of the exercise veers towards the Danish system. The syllabus seems to take the middle road between the Swedish and the Danish system.

Rhythmical exercises constitute a more dynamic form of gymnastics and promote mobility of the joints, develop neuro-muscular co-ordination, stimulate respiration, circulation and digestion, and conserve physical and mental energy.⁷⁷

⁷⁵ Ibid., p. 16.

⁷⁶ Ibid., p. 9.

⁷⁷ Ibid., p. 17.

On the other hand it warns:

The value of rhythmical exercises, however, must not be over-rated. They can easily lead to excessive suppleness at the expense of strength, and good posture must constantly be stressed during their performance or poor posture may result.⁷⁸

It is with this in mind that the importance of correction is heavily stressed.

In line with the European systems the syllabus prescribes progression and variety in the gymnastic tables. It should be pointed out here that the terms physical education, physical training and gymnastic lesson, seem to be randomly used and refer to what would normally be called the physical education lesson. The gymnastic table is "a series of exercises selected and arranged on a definite plan and in accordance with certain guiding principles."⁷⁹ The tables depend on the age group of the pupils, weather conditions and facilities available. It is significant to note that the syllabus differentiates in the needs of specific age groups and in its introduction pays ample attention to the physical and psychological characteristics and needs of various age groups. The subject material is arranged in accordance with the principles put forward in the classification of boys into four age groups.

The gymnastic tables are divided into the following sections:

⁷⁸ Ibid.

⁷⁹ Ibid., p. 12.

1. **Introductory exercises:** The object of this part of the lesson is to create the right atmosphere and activities are brisk and vigorous.

2. **Postural exercises:** As in the Danish, Swedish and German systems, posture played a major role in South African physical education.

The syllabus refers to the work and principles put forward by Bukh and states:

We recognise the fact that most form giving exercises are artificial in character and limited in their effect, and that they chiefly aim at the correction or prevention of faulty posture as well as the preparation of the body for its application to all other functional activities demanding and developing strength, endurance and nervous co-ordination.⁸⁰

Based on the philosophy that poor posture and untidy appearance are associated with poor health and poor character it was important for the people of the country at that time to regain self-confidence and pride in themselves. A good posture and a neat appearance would contribute towards such an objective. "A man's posture is, as it were, his basic and most characteristic gesture in which he expresses himself and through which he impresses others."⁸¹ The postural exercises are classified in a similar fashion to the Swedish system. Niels Bukh maintained that poor posture is often to be blamed on occupational habits. When he toured the Union with his Danish gymnasts he referred to the lack of

⁸⁰ Ibid., p. 113.

⁸¹ Ernst Jokl, "Physique and Character," Report of the First Congress for Physical Education, p. 61.

suppleness of the farmer boys and ascribed it to faulty development due to the nature of their physical work activities.⁸² The syllabus states that good posture and health could be obtained by strengthening the muscles, mobilizing the joints and acquiring co-ordination of movement:

This section of the gymnastic table must be composed of exercises providing an all-round working through of the large muscle groups and joints and may consist of free standing exercises, partner exercises, wall-bar exercises, or a mixture of any two of these . . . In brief, the postural section will consist of approximately 6 to 10 form-giving exercises strengthening and suppling the legs, arms and trunk (i.e., lateral, abdominal, dorsal and neck).⁸³

About one quarter of each lesson is devoted to this section.

3. General activities: This section is compiled of all kinds of gymnastic activities, e.g., agility, vaulting, climbing, apparatus gymnastics (beams, forms, parallel bars, horizontal bar, and rings), athletic practices (walking, running, jumping, and throwing) as well as minor games. These are taught either as class activities, group practices, or in a team system.

In the group system the class is divided up into smaller units. The advantage of such a group system is that more work can be done in the limited time at the teacher's disposal with a minimum of equipment.⁸⁴

Although they may seem similar the group and team

⁸²J. W. Postma, personal correspondence, December 25, 1971.

⁸³NACPE, Physical Education Syllabus. Senior Book I, p. 13.

⁸⁴Ibid., p. 22.

systems have some differences. In group activities the children are divided into groups of even or uneven numbers, according to the activity, and the group changes with each succeeding activity if necessary. In the team system, however, the class is divided into several teams whose personnel remain unchanged over a long period. The purpose of this system is as follows:

The team system provides an excellent opportunity for inculcating the desirable social virtues of leadership, loyalty to the chosen leader, co-operation, fair play, good temper, courage, and perseverance in contests and a sense of responsibility for personal actions.⁸⁵

4. Final exercises: The purpose of this short section is to "restore order" and to calm the pupils before they are dismissed. This is accomplished with marching, while stressing good posture, or a "quiet game."⁸⁶

Similar to the "Orders of the Day" of Ling's Swedish system is the chapter of the syllabus devoted to gymnastic terminology.

Gymnastic terminology constitutes a concise and accurate description of gymnastic exercises. . . . An exercise consists of a starting position and a movement. The muscle action of the position is static, whereas that of the movement is dynamic, and may be either concentric or eccentric. Simple positions of the body such as standing, sitting and lying are known as fundamental positions and may be used as starting positions.⁸⁷

Up to this point it is abundantly clear that the

⁸⁵ Ibid., p. 24.

⁸⁶ Ibid., p. 13.

⁸⁷ Ibid., p. 31.

Danish and Swedish systems had a marked effect on the evolution of a South African system of physical education. The reason for this could be found in the value placed on physical education and the beliefs held by the people in relation to physical education at that time in South African history. Physical education was judged by the standards of cultural values of pride, citizenship, and national duty. The ideas of Buch and Jahn fitted in with the ideas of growing South African nationalism.⁸⁸ The belief in the remedial effects of physical education and the contribution it could make to the improvement of posture and appearance made it worthy of inclusion in their education.

It is remarkable that the objective of the syllabus is stated for the first time in the third chapter. It is here that the elements of the German system of physical education come strongly into the picture.

It is the object of this syllabus to collect a wealth of material, to classify it into separate chapters, and to give some guidance as to how this material is to be used.

Many physical educationists look upon physical education as consisting mostly of free-standing exercises and fail to realise that formal structure exercises play a very subordinate role when compared with natural, fundamental bodily movements such as walking, running jumping, hanging, heaving, climbing, throwing, lifting, carrying, pulling, pushing, and playing.⁸⁹

This sounds very similar to the ideas of Jahn. More than

⁸⁸ J. W. Postma, personal correspondence, December 25, 1971.

⁸⁹ NACPE, Physical Education Syllabus. Senior Book I, p. 66.

half of the 604 pages of this syllabus are devoted to German type of Turnen (apparatus gymnastics and tumbling). It is also significant to note the frequent reference to the physical education lesson as the "gymnastic lesson." In the bibliography of the syllabus, the sources are predominantly German.

Mention is also made of swimming and track and field which indicates some traces of the English sport and games influence. Although sport and team games were extensively practised in most schools they did not have a major place in the physical education lesson but were regarded rather as activities that should take place after school hours. The sports programme was not regarded as being strictly "educational" and became an extramural activity. The fact that systematic remedial exercising of the body formed the major part of physical education again points to the reason for its inclusion in the school time table.

It must be concluded that the 1943 syllabus represents an eclectic system of physical education. According to Schrecker (who was a lecturer in physical education at Stellenbosch University at that time), this system fitted in well with the nature and needs of South Africans.

South Africans are still robust by nature and eager to put their natural gifts to the test. Hence activities in which there is something conspicuous to be achieved strongly appeal to them, and therefore they will take kindly to both English Sport and German Turnen. On the other hand, keen as they are to risk and to compete, South Africans are generally rather reluctant to submit to discipline and submit to a systematic training without which any appreciable attainment is impossible.

Therefore the neat way of execution, characteristic of Swedish and Danish postural exercises, provided these are presented in a congenial manner, will be highly beneficial to them in that it accustoms them to self discipline and thoroughness. At any rate, South Africans are in need of a varied programme of Physical Education, such as the Syllabus provides.⁹⁰

Women's Physical Education

Although the 1943 syllabus was drawn up for men and boys, physical education was also offered to girls. The observation must be made here that in many cases (in various countries), women took the lead in new trends and innovations in physical education. In South Africa it also appears that throughout the historical development of the subject women adopted new methods and ideas more easily and generally seemed to have been more progressive than the men within the field. The fact that the men's syllabus preceded that of the women again points to the circumstances, motivations, and intentions under which physical education evolved in South Africa.

Women's physical education, however, was also shaped by many of the factors that had an influence on the development of the men's section. It was therefore not free from military connotations. In 1941 there were about 5,000 W.A.A.F.'s and W.A.A.S.'s in uniform and Captain Miss Barrett was appointed to train organizers and instructors of Sport and Physical Training. The Advance Course included:

⁹⁰ Schrecher, "Trends in Physical Education," p. 164.

- a. Keep fit exercises
- b. Scandinavian dances
- c. Medau [rhythmical exercises]
- d. Further coaching in games
- e. Bronze and silver medallion of the Royal Life Saving Society
- f. Organization of Tabloid Sports, Swimming Galas, Athletic Meetings, Recreational Training (for large numbers of men and women)
- g. First Aid.⁹¹

Between 1941 and 1945 the women in these courses gave fifty displays and demonstrations in various parts of the Union--ranging in number from a thousand W.A.A.F.'s on the Wanderer's Grounds in 1942 to seven Physical Training Instructresses in Johannesburg in 1944.⁹² In spite of this development of women's physical education in the military sphere, physical education for women had its hey-day only after the Second World War.

Summary

In contrast with the previous period, the demand for formal physical education came indirectly from the needs of the people. With the growth of a nation and growing national awareness, there was a need for moral and physical rehabilitation of the South African nation. Attempts were made to satisfy these needs through the medium of physical education.

⁹¹Captain Miss Barrett, "The Development of Physical Education in the W.A.A.S. and W.A.A.F.," Report of the First South African Congress for Physical Education, p. 95.

⁹²Ibid., p. 97.

CHAPTER VI

PHYSICAL EDUCATION AFTER WORLD WAR II

Socio-economic developments after the Second World War changed the life patterns and values of many South Africans. Education and physical education did not escape the effects of these changes. In an evolving South African society where the threat of war, the struggle for economic survival, and intense feelings of cultural inferiority and insecurity had, to a large extent, been removed, the role and worth ascribed to physical education assumed new dimensions.

The Contribution of Physical Education to Nation-Building

In the years immediately following the Second World War physical education in South Africa was still strongly connected with nationalism. The people of South Africa had a strong need for national success and pride in their way of life. South African society needed something at this stage to give outlet to, and advance, growing national pride. Physical education could help provide for this need. At this time Jokl saw the contribution of physical education to the improvement of the nation as follows:

. . . evidence has been adduced to show that the low standard of fitness and efficiency, which is found in a section of the South African population is not due to basic biological defect, but it is largely the expression of environmental shortcomings. It can now be said that physical training, in combination with an

educational system conducted under conditions of discipline, and supplemented by a nutritional regime are capable of producing and maintaining a highly satisfactory standard of health and labour power of practically every European South African.¹

Protagonists for physical education generally propagated physical fitness as "a national duty that the individual owes to himself, his family and his country . . ."²

The role of the physical education teacher was seen by many in this light.

. . . He is in a position to daily perceive the effects of this guidance and to notice how weaklings are being transformed by his effort into healthy and vigorous individuals. The ideal of changing a C3 into an A1 nation is assuredly a great one.³

There is ample evidence of this attitude in the growing years of physical education.

. . . Let us take a leaf from the book of the Swiss, Danes, Swedes and other progressive nations who have the physical well-being of every member of the community at heart and who have found through experience that the more facilities they provide to keep the nation fit, the greater the vitality and output of its manpower.⁴

. . . the power and value of physical education leave no doubt amongst nations. It affects the elementary school in this connection. It must provide the foundation for a healthy nation; it must place healthy growth and development as first and as its most important objective.⁵

¹Ernst Jokl, E. H. Cluver, C. Coedvolk, and T. W. de Jongh, "Training and Efficiency," quoted in J. Krige, "Anthropometrie Ondersoekinge in Suid-Afrika," Report of the First South African Congress for Physical Education, p. 69.

²M Serfontein, "Physical Education at the Pretoria Technical College," Vigor, I (September, 1947), 52.

³Editorial, Vigor, I (September, 1947).

⁴Editorial, Vigor, I (December, 1947).

⁵D. P. Smith, "Die Plek van Liggaamlike Opvoeding op die Laerskool," Vigor, I (September, 1947), 29.

On the basis of the numerous examples where national pride and national duty (citizenship) are used to make propaganda for physical education, it is found that physical health is the foremost short term objective of the physical education programme. Some medical statistics of the time partly explain this emphasis.

In a medical inspection of white pupils between the ages of 6 and 7 in a large city school in 1943 it was found that two thirds of the children were malnourished; more than half had skin disease as a result of dietary deficiencies; and only 21.8% had normal teeth.⁶

Jokl, in a similar study in 1946 found that seventy five per cent of a sample of 150 children (age 6) suffered from malnutrition, seventy five per cent had dental defects, fifty five per cent suffered musculo-skeletal defects and forty six per cent were generally underdeveloped. He also noted that the bulk of the diseases were of a remedial nature.⁷

This need for physical rehabilitation is reflected in the objectives, as they were stated in 1947.

. . . Now the objectives of the South African physical education programme are briefly as follows:

1. The inculcation of health habits.
2. The building of organic fitness through activities specially selected to develop speed, strength and endurance.
3. The development of neuro-muscular control through numerous and varied activities that develop skills.
4. The inculcation of recreational habits and interests in children that will carry over on to their adult hobbies and avocations (recreation).

⁶Van Eck, "Physical Education and Social and Economic Planning," p. 38.

⁷Jokl, "Medical Research in Physical Education," p. 96.

5. The development of desirable social attitudes (citizenship) and standards of conduct (character) through sportsmanship (behaviour).⁸

After stating the objectives of physical education in South Africa Professor Claude Smit (who had been the organizer of Physical Education for the Union Education Department and in 1946 became the Head of the Institute for Physical Education at the University of Pretoria), added:

Guidance in the wide use of leisure and the development of personality, character and citizenship is a function that physical education shares with numerous other agencies. But there is one aspect for which physical education is better prepared than any other group. i.e., the improvement of physical fitness. The contribution of physical education to education consequently is not so much intellectual, technical, aesthetic or ethical, but physical.⁹

Improved socio-economic conditions in the years following the Second World War, however, de-emphasized the need of physical rehabilitation to a great extent.

Socio-Economic Developments

The economic recovery of the mid-thirties, together with the steps taken after the findings of the Carnegie Commission and the Volkskongres, gradually brought the phase of instability and insecurity in South Africa to an end. South Africa now entered a period of prosperity and economic stability. Between 1933 and 1965 the real national product grew at an average per annum rate of about five

⁸Claude Smit, "Health and Physical Education," Vigor, I (Sept., 1947), 7.

⁹Ibid.

per cent. With the population increasing at about 2.3 per cent there was an average rise of over two per cent per annum in per capita income.¹⁰ Although it was mainly gold mining that gave the economy a strong upward thrust, the economic progress was marked by its diversity.¹¹ A wide range of new industries sprung up while older ones were modernized and made more efficient. By 1945 the South African economy was in a strong position. More diversified than it had been in 1939, it was further boosted by the discovery of a new gold field in the Orange Free State. Foreign capital and immigrants poured into the country and boom conditions continued. Manufacturing was expanded in various directions, particularly in metals and engineering, textiles, and the chemical industry.¹²

Despite growing external political pressures and trade embargoes protesting the Government's race policy, the economy remained stable.

Boycotted by millions of world consumers and by sizeable numbers of governments, South Africa's economy is nevertheless among the fastest growing in the world: in the world of business, Sharpeville is forgotten and fresh funds are being invested in Dr. Verwoerd's republic.¹³

¹⁰ Wilson, History of South Africa, p. 32.

¹¹ By 1965 South Africa was by far the largest gold producer in the world, supplying 71.7 per cent of the free world's gold (Muller, A History of South Africa, p. 412).

¹² Wilson, History of South Africa, p. 36.

¹³ "Boom Times in South Africa," The Economist, March 7, 1964, p. 905.

The tempo of South African economic development has been described by economists as a second industrial revolution. The growth between 1963 and 1965 was described by a leading South African economist, Dr. H. J. van Eck, as the greatest recorded in modern times.¹⁴

The industrial and economic growth of South Africa caused major changes in the way of life of many South Africans --the process of urbanization continued at a steady rate; rural life lost its character of isolation; familialism was dwindling and the large family disappearing; other institutions had taken over many of the religious, educational, and other functions of the family of earlier days.¹⁵ Economic development, industrialization, and technological advances also brought about changes in patterns of leisure and recreation. At the beginning of the twentieth century family members spent most of their leisure time in social visiting and almost entirely within the orbit of the kin-group itself.

With the growth of industries a clear-cut division between work and leisure time was made possible through regular working hours and regular free time. The urban dweller not only had regular free time at his disposal but he also had more money to spend on aspects of life other than survival. The growing urbanization also served as a

¹⁴ The Star (Johannesburg), May 20, 1967, p. 13.

¹⁵ Da Gama Publishers, Our First Half-Century, 1910-1960 (Johannesburg: Da Gama Publishers Ltd., 1960), p. 140.

melting pot for new ideas and increased the variety of leisure time and recreational activities. It is widely accepted that sport is an offspring of technology and industrialization.¹⁶ In the South African cities and larger towns the presence of large numbers of workers promoted organized sport and the formation of sports clubs. It is to be expected that physical education would have reflected these changes by making corresponding adjustments. In some areas of South African physical education this did not seem the case (see p. 133).

Politics, Education and Physical Education

The school system of a society is generally shaped by the dominant social institution.¹⁷ Although the Church had dominated education in South Africa for more than two centuries, the State has become the dominant social institution and has consequently assumed more and more control over education. This take-over was facilitated by economic factors.

Since 1948 when Dr. Malan's National Party came into power there have been no major political upheavals in South Africa and the governing party's majority has grown with every successive election.¹⁸ In October 1960 a

¹⁶ Günther Lüschen, "The Interdependence of Sports and Culture," in The Cross-Cultural Analysis of Sport and Games, ed., by Günther Luchen (Champaign, Ill.: Stripes Publishing Company, 1970), p. 88.

¹⁷ Havinghurst, Comparative Perspectives on Education, p. xiii.

¹⁸ New York Times, April 9, 1966, p. 1.

referendum was held and it was decided by a vote of 849,958 to 775,878 that the Union would become a Republic.¹⁹ Protagonists of the Republican idea hoped that this would put an end to past division between the two language groups. To a great extent this has been accomplished. By the early sixties many English-speaking South Africans no longer regarded themselves as British but instead identified themselves with South Africa.²⁰ The Afrikaners, especially those in urban areas, have likewise adopted many traits of the English-speaking way of life. This indicated a decline of strong feelings of Afrikaner nationalism--a factor which had an influence on the growth of physical education in the 1930's.

With growing industrialization there developed a greater need for highly-skilled manpower. The shortage of skilled labour to meet the demands of rapid economic development was keenly felt by 1960 and still today presents a serious problem.²¹ The student "bulge" leading to increasing financial demands, made universities and other educational institutions more dependent on the Government for financial assistance. This naturally led to increased government involvement in educational policy and organization.

In May 1960, the Central Government gained more

¹⁹ Ibid., October 8, 1960, p. 6.

²⁰ Krüger, The Making of a Nation, p. 331.

²¹ UNESCO, World Survey of Education (Paris: UNESCO, 1966), III, 1009.

control over education by the introduction of the Education Advisory Bill.²² Although the Bill did not remove the responsibility for education from the provinces, it stipulated that legislation on educational matters should not be made without previous consultation with the Minister of Education.

Not only was there an increase in involvement in education but the government's role in the organization of physical education and sport increased significantly. In 1951 a National Advisory Council for Adult Education was instituted by the Union Minister of Education. This council replaced existing councils. The NACPE, for example, was taken over by the National Committee for Physical Education and Recreation.²³ On the recommendation of the 1958 conference a National Committee for Youth Service and Physical Education was appointed by the Minister of Education, Arts and Science in 1960.²⁴ In 1966 a Government Department of Sport and Recreation was established²⁵ with Mr. Frank W. Waring as Minister of Sports and Recreation.²⁶

The educational system of a society, to a large

²² Times Education Supplement, No. 2346 (May 6, 1960), p. 903.

²³ Vigor, IV (June, 1951), 4-5.

²⁴ Ibid., XIV (March, 1961), 3.

²⁵ J. C. Kelder, "Physical Education," in Standard Encyclopedia of Southern Africa, ed., by D. J. Potgieter (Cape Town: Nasou Limited, 1971), p. 243.

²⁶ Yearbook of South Africa, 1969, p. 48.

extent, reflects the basic values of that society. The South African situation was no exception. The fact that the white population was living in a country with an overwhelming non-white majority determined, to a large extent, the nature, purpose and scope of secondary education. It was designed mainly to train leaders for a society in which most of the menial and unskilled work was being done by the non-white inhabitants. Consequently, secondary education was styled chiefly as a preparation for white-collar jobs and learned professions.²⁷

State support brought inspection. The latter stressed the external and measurable elements of instruction, with the result that the three R's in course of time, came to be regarded as ends in themselves. The school as an institution thus gradually began to lose its grip upon the life activities of the people. There was no longer the clear-cut aim which the old "meesters" had had and which the people recognised--confirmation for church membership--to which the three R's were merely instrumental. The school became an entity by itself with its own circumscribed aims, viz., the teaching of subjects. Teachers, with their eyes concentrated on these "subjects" which to them had become the eternal verities, lost the wood for the trees. Thus gradually the school became an institution, like the church, with its own high priests, its own dogmas and ritual largely out of contact with the fast-moving and variegated life outside.²⁸

Thus after the lean period of the 1930's education in South African schools was directed at the passing of a school leaving examination and the attainment of the necessary academic qualification. This, South Africans believed, would

²⁷ E. G. Malherbe, "The Education of the Adolescent in the Union of South Africa," Year Book of Education, 1936, p. 201.

²⁸ Malherbe, "Cultural and Economic Forces," p. 666.

open the door to a professional career and a share in the "good life" of a fast growing country. Factual or content education was very important at that time. The emphasis on content education and the "examination bogey" has had a constraining effect on South African education and has directly affected the role and place of physical education in the school.

The 1961 Education Panel Report stated the two main objectives of South African education. Firstly, it stated that education should fit the individual with the necessary skills and knowledge needed to earn a living. Secondly, it should promote a sufficient degree of social adjustment.²⁹ It appears that emphasis had been placed mainly on the first objective and that, in the quest for academic qualifications, the second objective had been moved into the background. This had an adverse affect on physical education in the schools.

The Role and Status of Physical Education

In the period from 1933 to the time immediately after the Second World War much attention was paid to the moral issues of the South African nation. It was also during this period that problems, such as increasing juvenile delinquency

²⁹ The 1961 Education Panel Report, Education for South Africa (Johannesburg: Witwatersrand University Press, 1963), pp. 16, 17.

and the high divorce rate, frequently received attention.³⁰

After World War II physical education articles emphasized the moral values of sports and physical education.

National feelings were strong and results in terms of sports achievements were important. Because so much value was attached to the achievements of South African sportsmen, physical educators were frequently warned not to forget that much was expected from them in terms of sports achievements in international competition.

This does not mean that we should disregard the moral issues which are perhaps of primary importance for our subject, but it is intended to stress the point that in the material world we must show measurable results.³¹

It may be worth our while to study the barometer of athletic achievement in the international field. At the Empire Games in 1938 South Africa proportionately attained the highest number of points. In 1950 we were placed fifth. With the exception of our boxers, we were not impressive at the 1948 Olympic Games. The fact that we have good rugby players who, incidentally, compete only in the Empire, and that we have one world class performer in golf and tennis respectively, must not blind us to the fact that we are losing ground in sport.³²

The role of physical education as a contribution to nation-building was still strongly stressed at that time. The role of physical education in the national life of some European nations was often quoted as an example.

³⁰ Conference of the Representatives of the University of Cape Town and the University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg, held in Cape Town on 9, 10, and 11 January 1957, The Open Universities in South Africa (Johannesburg: Witwatersrand University Press, 1957), p. 33.

³¹ Editorial, Vigor, II (December, 1948).

³² Ibid., III (September, 1950).

The most striking phenomenon in the history of physical education is no doubt the fact that it has so often developed into a national movement in which the nation has found a spontaneous outlet for its convictions and aspirations . . . such movements can be a source of power in the national life of a nation. Great responsibility therefore rests on the leaders of physical education and such movements to see to it that their activities are directed in the right channels.

Attention is especially drawn to the part which such movements can play in moulding the character and enriching the culture of a nation, in addition to making its contribution towards national fitness . . .³³

Physical education in South Africa had its hey-day prior to and just after the Second World War but already in the first issue of Vigor in September 1947 there were signs of disappointment and a decline in enthusiasm. Although the tour of the Swedish gymnasts in that year made a considerable impression on many it was noted that many physical education teachers had turned to other vocations. This was deplored and reasons for the decline in interest were frequently put forward in physical education editorials and reports. Much of the blame was put on the people within the field itself.

Physical education teachers were not in agreement on the nature and purpose of the subject. Isabelle Nel, a member of the staff of the University of Stellenbosch, wrote:

We are convinced that there is truth in the modern idea that physical education has great value as a factor in social adjustment. Give this statement a thought and judge how many teachers make use of the opportunity of using it as such. How many teachers teach children activities which will be valuable in later life? The

³³ Ibid., I (September, 1948).

fact then is obvious. There is a lack of understanding among ourselves about the implication of the term Physical Education in modern life.³⁴

The result of this uncertainty and lack of agreement was that, in schools, many forms and interpretations of the subject were presented without much understanding and direction.

Although physical education had by the late 1940's lost much of its military appeal there were still many teachers whose sole concept of physical education was connected with the military type "drill." In 1947 Miss I. Scott of the Teachers College, Johannesburg, described a typical "drill" period as follows:

In some schools it consists of ten minutes first thing in the morning, when either all teachers take their own classes, or groups are combined so that one teacher sometimes has to deal with as many as seventy children. To my mind, this method serves little useful purpose beyond possibly warming the children up, to a greater or lesser degree, on winter mornings. Any attempt at correction beyond a general one, cannot possibly be achieved in the time, and very often the children at the back are left more or less to their own devices. This means that their performances leave a great deal to be desired. Even an outstandingly good teacher of physical education finds it difficult to improve the posture and physique of so large a number in so short a time.³⁵

At the conclusion of the Second World War and the termination of many military operations it follows that something like "drill" would not be regarded by many as a particularly

³⁴ Isabelle Nel, "Whither Physical Education," Vigor, II (December, 1948), 30.

³⁵ M. I. Scott, "Drill in the Primary Schools," Vigor, I (September, 1947), 12.

worthwhile endeavour. In spite of this there remained a strong connection between physical education and military training. At a poorly attended Second South African Congress for Physical Education held at Stellenbosch and Cape Town in January 1950, Mr. J. J. Op't Hof (from the Department of Education), in his opening address, stressed the important military function of physical education.³⁶ At the same congress, Brigadier C. L. du Toit, Director-General of the Land Forces of the Union Defence Force, delivered a paper in which he stated that at that stage there were 450 cadet detachments in the Union schools with 1,400 officers and 460,000 cadets. He gave a review of cadet training and said that its three cardinal points were discipline, physical training, and the use of arms. "In our land of sunshine there is no excuse for a C3 nation," said Brigadier du Toit.³⁷

In 1948, Miss Isabelle Nel came forward with a new approach for looking at the problems that faced South African physical education. She pointed out that most of the blame should be looked for in the training centres for physical education teachers. Originally the greater majority of the teaching staff at these universities and colleges had come from overseas and had brought with them their own particular ideas and systems of physical education. The result was that each South African institution developed

³⁶ Vigor, III (March, 1950), 11.

³⁷ Cape Times (Cape Town), January 11, 1950, p. 4.

its own system, believing that it was the only and correct one. Many of these foreign systems were not at all applicable to local conditions.

There is an excuse for students who have been trained in the country for accepting one system as ideal, because they were never encouraged to experiment with other systems or told of their possible advantages to conditions in South Africa. Is it surprising therefore, that we have today in South Africa a state of jumbled ideas as to what physical education is, with consequent bickering about who is right?³⁸

Miss Nel made a plea for physical educationists to cooperate and support a central body such as the National Advisory Council for Physical Education. This would promote the beginning of a clearly defined system of physical education in South Africa and for South Africans.

A decline in interest in physical education was also reflected in its poor status in the schools. Emphasis on intellectual development, in general, appears to have a negative effect on the value attached to physical education,³⁹ and because examination subjects were receiving increasing attention, less attention and time were given to physical education in South African schools.

In spite of memorandums to the Education Departments⁴⁰ drawing attention to matters such as syllabi, inadequate time and facilities and heavy teaching loads of physical

³⁸ Nel, "Whither Physical Education," p. 30.

³⁹ Arthur Weston, The Making of American Physical Education (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1962), p. 104.

⁴⁰ Vigor, VIII (December, 1954), 14-16, and C. J. Roux, "Liggaamlike Opvoeding op Skool," Vigor V (March, 1952), 22.

education teachers, conditions within the schools generally left much to be desired. An investigation into school physical education in 1958 indicated that sixty per cent of the secondary schools could make use of the school halls for physical education. For the rest, teachers had to make use of a patch of grass or bare ground. In primary schools conditions were still more unfavourable. Apparatus usually did not even meet the minimum requirements. Physical education apparatus had to be bought by the school itself and was subsidized on a pound for pound basis by the Education Department.⁴¹ The Natal Department of Education was the first to introduce the pound for pound subsidization for the building of sports facilities and the acquisition of physical education equipment.⁴² The Cape Education Department followed with a similar plan in 1953.⁴³ The fact that the cost of the acquisition of such items as library books and laboratory equipment was completely covered by the Education Department reflects the lack of recognition given to physical education by the authorities.

At the conclusion of the Seventh Congress for Physical Education that was held at Stellenbosch in December, 1957, recommendations to the Departments of Education were

⁴¹"Conditions in the Field of Physical Education," Vigor, XI (March, 1958), 17.

⁴²Buys, "Onderwys in Natal," p. 252.

⁴³Du Toit, "Onderwys in Kaapland," p. 98.

drawn up.⁴⁴ Apart from recommendations regarding time and provision of facilities and equipment, one of the suggestions was that the Department of Education should draw up a new syllabus for physical education. No reasons were given in the report for this request but it did reflect some dissatisfaction with the existing syllabus. The Report also made recommendations in connection with training centres for physical education teachers. It requested the Departments to reconsider their decision to decrease the time allotted to physical education in training colleges. It was also recommended by the Congress that the Education Departments should consider the possibility of putting the Vanves experiment⁴⁵ to the test under South African conditions. The Orange Free State Department was the only body to show further interest in the experiment but nothing further developed. This reflects the conservatism of many South Africans in experimenting with new ideas.

In 1952 an article appeared in Vigor suggesting that physical education be made an examination subject in order to stress its importance.⁴⁶ This idea was also considered at

⁴⁴ Vigor, XI (March, 1958), 19-21.

⁴⁵ In 1950 a series of four experiments was started in Vanves, France. It was found that no reduction of intellectual accomplishment took place when the time devoted to physical education was increased.

⁴⁶ C. J. Roux, "Liggaamlike Opvoeding op Skool," p. 22.

the 1957 conference of the South African Association for Health, Physical Education and Recreation.⁴⁷ The suggestion was never carried out and did not appear amongst the recommendations made to the Department of Education.

In 1948 Professor Claude Smit of Pretoria University blamed the precarious position of physical education in the schools on a lack of knowledge on the part of the teachers.⁴⁸ As a result refresher courses were held for physical education teachers in the early fifties.⁴⁹ In 1952 Professor Smit put forward another reason for the failure of school physical education, namely that the 1943 syllabus was not enforced on a national basis.⁵⁰

At the 1957 Congress it was suggested that the status of physical education could be improved by making propaganda for the subject. This could be achieved by staging mass displays. The opportunity to put this into practice came with the Union Festival which was staged in Bloemfontein in May 1960. The Defence and Police Forces, the South African Gymnastic Union, and thousands of school children took part in mass displays of physical exercises

⁴⁷ Vigor, XI (March, 1958), 64.

⁴⁸ Claude Smit, "Die Liggaamlike Opvoeder se Probleem in Suid-Afrika," Vigor, II (December, 1948), 25.

⁴⁹ Du Toit, "Onderwys in Kaapland," p. 108.

⁵⁰ Claude Smit, "Liggaamlike Fiksheid. n Doelstelling van Liggaamlike Opvoeding," Vigor, VI (December, 1952), 19.

and gymnastics.⁵¹

By 1960 it was laid down that each pupil, during regular school hours, should receive 1 1/4 hours of physical education per week.⁵² However, it was found in 1963 and later in 1967 that the problems of time allocation and lack of facilities had not been cleared up.⁵³ Not only was physical education being neglected in many schools but there were officials who propagated that it should be removed altogether from the school curriculum. One of these officials was the Vice Chairman of the Oranje Vrystaatse Onderwys-vereniging (O.F.S. Teachers Association), Mr. J. M. B. Faure, who argued that sport after school hours was sufficient for the physical development of the child.⁵⁴ This is an indication of the worth attached to physical education towards the end of the 1950's.

The South African Association for Health, Physical Education and Recreation

Lack of agreement and direction amongst physical educators created a need for a central professional body and a uniform policy. This resulted in the formation of the

⁵¹ Kelder, "Physical Education," p. 243.

⁵² UNESCO, Survey of Education, III, 1126.

⁵³ International Council on Health, Physical Education, and Recreation (ICHPER), International Questionnaire Report. Part I: Physical Education in the School Curriculum (1967-68 Revision, Washington: ICHPER, 1969), p. 65.

⁵⁴ J. W. Postma, "Eerder Meer as Minder Periodes," Vigor, XI (December, 1957), 16.

South African Association for Health, Physical Education and Recreation in January 1950. The object of SAAPHER was to promote and stimulate interest in these fields.⁵⁵ Dr. Danie Craven and Dr. J. W. Postma were the first chairman and secretary, respectively, of the newly formed association. Both of these men were on the staff of the Department of Physical Education at the University of Stellenbosch, which has played a leading role in the field of physical education in South Africa. The aim of the first committee was to awaken and promote "wide and intelligent" interest; to acquire and distribute accurate information; to promote adequate programmes; and to promote and protect the professional interest of members in the field of health education, physical education, and physical recreation.⁵⁶ By 1955, SAAPHER had eleven branches.⁵⁷

This body did much to promote and publicize physical education. They held biennial conferences and invited to South Africa such prominent overseas physical educationists as Dorothy Ainsworth (1960), Carl Diem (1959), and Arthur Steinhause (1965). Although numerous South African physical educators went to the U.S.A. for graduate studies the mentioned overseas visitors from America did not leave a

⁵⁵ Vigor, III (March, 1950), 10.

⁵⁶ Ibid., VIII (March, 1955), 28.

⁵⁷ Branches had been established at Stellenbosch, Cape Town, Paarl, Grahamstown, Kimberley, Pretoria, Potchefstroom, Standerton, Pietermaritzburg, Ladysmith, and Bloemfontein. (Vigor, VIII [March, 1955], 28).

visible impact on physical education programmes in South Africa.

New Ideas

From time to time the Union Department of Education, Arts and Science sponsored refresher courses for physical education teachers. In September 1954 such a course was held at the Hartebeespoortdam, near Pretoria. The programme was set up as follows:

Methods of teaching gymnastics (ten periods)
 Work Schedules and work schemes (two periods)
 Corrective Gymnastics (four periods)
 Administration and Organization of physical education
 (eight periods)
 Methods of teaching sport (six periods).⁵⁸

Although the National Physical Education Syllabus, Senior Book II (for boys over ten and men), published in 1948, comprised a variety of subjects such as track and field, boxing, swimming, wrestling and gymnastic games, the German type of programme (with emphasis on apparatus gymnastics) was still going strongly by 1954.⁵⁹ This phenomenon is also reflected in the above allocation of times in the Hartebeespoortdam refresher course.

In the 1950's most of the external influence on South African physical education came from the United States. After 1950 many physical educators went to the U.S.A. for further study and returned dispersing American ideas

⁵⁸ Vigor, VII (September, 1954), 41.

⁵⁹ J. W. Postma, personal correspondence, December, 25, 1971.

and experimenting with American methods. American literature was also readily available and was extensively studied. Many American articles appeared in their original form in numerous editions of Vigor. American achievements on the international sports scene were an important factor leading to the invitation of several American coaches to visit South Africa. Games such as basketball, baseball, and softball were introduced in South Africa in the period after the Second World War. Although they never became as popular as the traditional sports (such as rugby, cricket, and soccer), they received much publicity in Vigor.

By 1952 the movement away from the mere "physical" towards an increased emphasis on the "educational" aspect of physical education was strongly felt in some South African circles.

Lately, we have been strongly influenced by American and European authorities who have emphasised the educational, psychological or philosophical merits of physical education, and this has fitted admirably into our attempts at clothing the subject with dignity.

There is, of course, considerable justification for physical education on these grounds, but in this process of taking it to college many have lost sight of the fact, that, first and foremost, it deals with the body--hence the term physical education. The very reason for the existence of the subject is that it can influence the development of the body and its achievements.⁶⁰

This new emphasis could be seen as a part of a universal trend of physical education towards achieving greater professional recognition. Experimentalism also became a strong

⁶⁰ Editorial, Vigor, VI (December, 1952).

philosophy amongst physical educators in the 1950's.⁶¹

At that time there began a more informal approach to physical education. Some leaders and many teachers in the field of physical education started to question the heavy emphasis that had been placed on gymnastics. In 1952 Dr. J. W. Postma, an early leader in South African physical education, wrote an article in which he concluded that gymnastics should not be considered as the basis for physical education. According to Postma, gymnastics should be seen as only one aspect of a broad concept of physical education.⁶²

On the other hand, Dr. D. P. J. Smith, a leader in the field in the Transvaal, did not agree with the growing trend toward a play movement and considered apparatus gymnastics as an important aspect of any physical education programme. Smith stated that all physical education programmes should aim at physical development and without apparatus gymnastics this was very difficult to accomplish.⁶³ The mere publication of these articles reflects the existence of a movement in the direction of a more informal, games orientated programme in the schools. This was considered detrimental to the "forgotten principles of physical education."

⁶¹ Du Toit, "Physical Education in South Africa." p. 61.

⁶² J. W. Postma, "Gymnastics--the Basis of Physical Education," Vigor, V (June, 1952), 52.

⁶³ D. J. P. Smith, "Die Doel en Plek van die Liggaam-like Opvoedingsprogram," Vigor, VI (March, 1953), 42-46.

The old fashioned idea that physical education consisted solely of gymnastic exercises was waived, to be replaced by the broader point of view which sees physical education, in the first instance, as a branch of general education, with particular emphasis on the value of developing physical fitness, on acquiring skills which provide healthy physical recreation and on the formation of character.⁶⁴

Dr. Smith was not alone in his stand against this new influence. Mr. K. A. Schrecker from Pretoria University (who came to South Africa from Germany in 1939 as a refugee), also strongly opposed the new "scientific" influences. He pointed to poor physical standards in the U.S.A.

At present the would-be scientific factors tend to keep Physical Education drifting in the doldrums. Nowhere is this more noticeable than the U.S.A. which has become the stronghold of that trend. Here an immense amount of research--genuine as well as spurious--is being done in Physical Education--and what is the outcome? The national standard of fitness has dropped to an amazingly low ebb because there is a general indifference toward the dire⁶⁵ necessity of imparting what is being tested so eagerly.

Schrecker further quotes the American Charles McCloy's comments on the new emphasis in physical education.

. . . the result has been that when Physical Education went to college and added psychology, character education, mental hygiene, tests and measurements and the new principles to the curriculum it quietly dumped most of its body-building emphasis into the educational garbage can and set it out on the curb.⁶⁶

⁶⁴ "Memorandum as regards the Present Position in regard to Physical Education in South African Schools," Vigor, VI (June, 1953), 5.

⁶⁵ K. A. Schrecker, "Educatio Physica--Quo Vadis?" Vigor, V (June, 1952), 20.

⁶⁶ Charles H. McCloy, Philosophical Basis for Physical Education, quoted in Schrecker, "Education Physica--Quo Vadis?" p. 20.

Harry McEwan in the introduction to his book The Physical Education Lesson, wrote:

But, as is so often the case when a new direction is taken, the tendency has been to go too far. Much of the value has been discarded in our efforts to be modern . . . Fortunately men proved to be more conservative than women in this respect and when it was suggested in certain quarters that we incorporate basic movement and modern dance into our systems, a halt was called. We refuse to relegate our vaulting horse to the cellar simply because some boys regarded it with a certain amount of trepidation. We remembered the satisfaction that many more derived from negotiating with this particular obstacle. Neither did we forget the usefulness of the open order formation from the point of view of class organization or the value of the formal command.⁶⁷

In a series of articles on physical education for boys,⁶⁸ Messrs. J. J. Schoombie (Inspector of physical education in the Western Province) and C. A. Victor maintained much of the content, formality of teaching, and class organization of the 1943 syllabus. Although games and sports skills were included in a series of modern lessons, postural exercises and gymnastics were still given a prominent place.

Women's Physical Education

In the field of women's physical education new methods were being experimented with and it is not therefore surprising that women's physical education made rapid

⁶⁷ Harry E. McEwan, The Physical Education Lesson (Cape Town: Maskew Miller Ltd., 1960), p. 2.

⁶⁸ J. J. Schoombie and C. A. Victor, "Liggaamlike Opvoeding op Skool vir Seuns," A series of articles that appeared in Vigor, Vol. XIV (June, 1961), to Vol. XIX (December, 1966).

progress in this period. With the war and its consequent demand for physical fitness now almost forgotten there was a shift in emphasis from physical fitness and training to physical education.

It has been pointed out that the visit of the Swedish Gymnasts had a positive effect on women's physical education in South Africa (Chapter V, p. 85). Then in less than two years following the tour of the Swedish gymnasts, modern dance was introduced. Modern Dance or Laban Art of Movement was first taught at the Johannesburg School of Physical Education and was, in 1949, described as follows:

In its best form it is an art with a highly perfected technique, and it is in no way connected with nebulous types of expressionistic dance. Rightly taught, it expresses complete harmony of movement and a consciousness of the relation of the body to rhythm and space. It develops not only individuality, but also, through group work, a sense of responsibility to the community.⁶⁹

In 1952 the first women's physical education syllabus, Physical Education Syllabus. Senior Book III, was published. In the introduction to the syllabus the term physical education and its aims are defined as follows:

Physical education is that phase of the school curriculum which is largely concerned with the growth and development of children through the medium of activities involving the big muscle groups.

The aim of physical education is the same as that of general education, namely, to develop the child as a whole, mind, body and soul, regarded as an inseparable unit.⁷⁰

⁶⁹ Jean Scott-Williams, "Modern Dance," Vigor, II (March, 1948), 8.

⁷⁰ National Advisory Council for Physical Education, Physical Education Syllabus. Senior Book III (Pretoria: Government Printer, 1952), p. 1.

Although the introduction to the syllabus (920 pages containing some 200 actual photographs) is similar to that of the men's syllabus of 1943 it included (apart from apparatus gymnastics and tumbling) such activities as minor games, skipping, medicine ball exercises, partner work, rhythmical exercises, folk dancing, and keep fit tables. In the epilogue some information is given on modern dance.

In July 1952 a women's section of SAAPHER was formed under the leadership of Miss Isabelle Nel of the University of Stellenbosch.⁷¹ South Africa sent representatives from this body to international conferences of the International Association of Physical Education and Sports for Girls and Women. The conferences were held in different centres in Europe and America in 1949, 1952 and 1961.

The women's section of SAAPHER organized a tour for the first three months of 1955. A group of twenty ladies gave displays and lecture demonstrations in eighteen towns throughout the Union. This group demonstrated some of the contents of the 1952 syllabus. The venture was under the auspices of the Education Departments of the four provinces.⁷²

Apart from the handbook Rhythmic Movement and various courses in rhythmic movement held at the University of Stellenbosch,⁷³ a handbook for primary schools, Physical Education for

⁷¹ vigor, V (September, 1952), 62.

⁷² Ibid., VIII (March, 1955), 37.

⁷³ Ibid., XI (March, 1958), 4.

Girls was published by the Department of Education, Arts and Science in 1958. This book covered the age group 5 1/2 -12 1/2 years. The material for the the 5 1/2-7 1/2 years age group could be used for both boys and girls. The important feature of this handbook was that it included a completely new chapter on "Preparatory Activities, Basic Skills and Techniques for Games and Athletics." The objective of this chapter is to provide material on activities that may be of use to the student in her recreational life after she has left school.⁷⁴ This is a reflection of the relatively progressive thinking within the women's section of South African physical education.

English Movement Education also had its influence on South African physical education but it was restricted to physical education for girls. After some experimental courses in movement education the first full scale course was held at Stellenbosch under the leadership of Miss Isabelle Nel. Apart from students from training institutions, fifty physical education teachers attended the one-week course.⁷⁵

Trends in Men's Physical Education

It is apparent that men were much more conservative than women when it came to experimenting with and introducing new ideas in physical education. This is a reflection of the conservatism of many South Africans. Dr. D. M. Morton, a

⁷⁴ Ibid., XI (March, 1958), 6.

⁷⁵ Ibid., XVI (June, 1963), 53.

South African Professor of Education, maintains that this conservatism had its origins in European culture and that Afrikaans-speaking South Africans are markedly more conservative in their outlook than their English-speaking counterparts. Morton further states:

New ideas, new ways of life, new ways of earning a living, are not always welcome: and the educational arrangements that stem from them are not particularly sought after either.⁷⁶

Although no major innovations or drastic changes took place in men's physical education there were, nevertheless, some observable differences between the type of lesson offered between and immediately after the two world wars and the typical lesson of the sixties. McEwan in his book The Physical Education Lesson, lists some of the more obvious changes.⁷⁷

1. Emphasis has shifted from the first part of the lesson (postural exercises) to the second part (individual skills).

2. Teaching has become less formal. Apart from teaching techniques, formal class formations have given way to free spacing.

3. More attention is paid to individual effort as against the old system where the whole class had to perform

⁷⁶ D.M. Morton, "Social Structure and the Curriculum: The Position in South Africa," Year Book of Education, 1958, p. 406.

⁷⁷ McEwan, The Physical Education Lesson, pp. 2-3.

an activity together.

4. Less attention is paid to mobility work and more is given to strengthening and stamina training.

5. The limitations of vaulting and agility activities as group practices, have been supplemented by a variety of sports skills.

6. All forms of passive stretching have been abandoned as unscientific and dangerous.

7. Certain types of Swedish apparatus, such as wall-bars and beams which have only limited use, have in many cases been replaced by "jungle gyms."

8. A division between gymnastics and physical education has been made.

These changes indicate an increased trend away from rigorous, disciplined training of the body towards a broader concept of physical education.

The Impact of the Fitness Movement

Although many physical educators in South Africa had expressed themselves against the American system of physical education, it is ironical that physical education for men regained some prestige and vitality as a direct result of events in the U.S.A.

The necessity for exercise came to the fore with the illness of President Eisenhower and the results of the Kraus-Weber tests. After his illness President Eisenhower gave the support of the White House to physical education

by summoning a Conference on Physical Fitness of American Youth in 1956.⁷⁸

In its first circular of 1957, the Federation Internationale d'Education Physique appealed to all affiliated countries to initiate a campaign for the promotion of physical fitness and to counteract the increasing incidence of phenomena such as "physical weakness, defects in the organs of movement and support, and loss of capacity for work."⁷⁹

The American President-elect, John F. Kennedy, in 1960, placed an article titled "The Soft American" in Sports Illustrated (December 26, 1960). This article was reprinted in its original form in Vigor (Vol. XIV, June, 1961). In this article Kennedy warned the American nation about the decline in the physical fitness of the American youth and pointed out that no nation that allows its citizens to become physically decadent could expect to survive in a changing and challenging world.⁸⁰ The National Council of Youth Fitness was formed in the U.S.A. with the object of "identifying the physically under-developed pupil and working with him to improve his physical capacity . . ."⁸¹

From 1960 onwards, articles and editorials similar to "The Soft American" became prominent in physical education

⁷⁸ Weston, The Making of American Physical Education, p. 104

⁷⁹ Editorial, Vigor, X (March, 1957).

⁸⁰ Sports Illustrated, December 26, 1960, p. 17.

⁸¹ New York Times, July 20, 1961, p. 1.

literature in South Africa. In June 1961 the editorial of Vigor related:

There are numerous indications that white South Africans are softening and that a nation which once prided itself on its physical prowess and toughness is rapidly sinking into the C3 category.⁸²

It was also at this time that the armed forces indicated that the physical standards of recruits were far below military requirements.⁸³

On the suggestion of SAAPHER, the Department of Education, Arts and Science sponsored a National Fitness Conference in December, 1961 in Pretoria.⁸⁴ The National Fitness Scheme was undertaken by the South African Federation for Youth and Sport in conjunction with SAAPHER and was sponsored by The Old Mutual, a well-known life assurance company. A committee under the chairmanship of Mr. Rudolf W. Opperman, who was also chairman of SAAPHER, prepared the requirements for various fitness awards. These requirements were approved at the SAAPHER congress in Bloemfontein in October, 1965. The scheme was carried out on a national basis but it was stated that it should not disrupt regular physical education lessons. Although the scheme enjoyed ample publicity and initially created much enthusiasm it did not come up to expectations. The primary reason for its failure could be found in the fact that such fitness tests

⁸² Editorial, Vigor, XIV (September, 1961).

⁸³ Vigor, XIV (September, 1961), 3.

⁸⁴ Ibid., XIV (December, 1961), 1.

generally attract only the physically fit individuals. Another reason must be found in the fact that the fitness scheme had to be carried out after regular school hours. This led to a clash with the traditional extramural sports programme.

Demands for Recreation

The impact of technology is a critical, if not the prime, aspect of social change. In spite of this, society clings to old norms and is generally reluctant to replace existing values. Changes in the placement of old values on a new scale of value assessments are usually the work of creative personalities rather than that of society in general.⁸⁵

The physical education programme in South Africa has similarly been slow in making adjustments to new demands brought about by increasing industrialization and urbanization. Growing industrialization and mechanization tend to bring about a shift of emphasis from physical training and fitness to the concept of recreation.

Industrial and technical advances had two implications for physical education in South African schools. In order to meet the demands for specialists and well-trained technicians, pupils had to spend more years at school than ever before. Secondly, advanced technological development and automation provide man with more free time. Since the child spends most

⁸⁵ Leland Hazard, "The Power of Technology: Challenges for Urban Policy," in Values and the Future, ed., by Baier, p. 323.

of his pre-working life at school, it is expected that the school should also educate the child on how to use his leisure time once he has left school. Traditionally much emphasis had been placed on family life with the result that much of the leisure time and recreational activities of South Africans was still being conducted as family activities.⁸⁶ Urbanization, industrialization and differentiation, however, brought about changes in South African family life which also affected the family's recreational patterns.

The formation of the South African Nature Union in November, 1960 was "to provide and assist in providing suitable areas of land for leisure-time use of the people of South Africa so that they could be brought into contact with nature."⁸⁷ This reflects that a need was felt to provide for and adjust to the increased leisure time of South Africans.

In spite of universal growing interest in the concept of recreation and the extension of the range of sports activities,⁸⁸ little has been done in South African physical education to adjust to the shift in emphasis.⁸⁹

⁸⁶ Da Gama Publishers, Our First Half-Century, p. 141.

⁸⁷ Vigor, XIV (December, 1960), 3.

⁸⁸ P. C. McIntosh, Sport in Society (London: C. A. Watts and Co., Ltd., 1963), p. 172.

⁸⁹ Vigor, XI (March, 1958), 15, XIV (September, 1961), 44, XVI (June, 1963), 22, XIX (June, 1966), 5.

Mr. A. H. Briton, senior lecturer in physical education, University College of the Orange Free State, speaking at a meeting of the Playing Fields Association in 1950, maintained that the South African idea of recreation was wrong and that it was a relic of Victorian times "when work was regarded as work and play as a waste of time."⁹⁰ Although much was written in physical education literature on the school's responsibility in the field of recreation, it made little impression on physical education programmes:

. . . it is not unfair to say that in South Africa our efforts and trend of thinking as Physical Educationists have shown very little signs of the slightest awareness of this pronounced shifting of interest away from the conventional, highly organized, competitive sports to the ever-increasing range of participation in what might be called less formal recreational activities.

It is . . . a source of considerable alarm that the physical educationist, despite professed objections to the contrary seems to confine himself more and more to the area of the school, and the training institution.⁹¹

At the Eighth SAAPHER Congress held in Johannesburg in December 1959, the following proposed aims of South African physical education were accepted by the Congress.

Physical Education is an integral part of education as a whole. Its aim, therefore must contribute to the educational ideal which is to develop the whole individual harmoniously i.e., physically, mentally and spiritually and to produce a standard of conduct acceptable to a discriminating society.

Specific Aims

1. To promote physical growth which includes:

⁹⁰ Cape Times (Cape Town), January 20, 1950, p. 3.

⁹¹ R. W. J. Opperman, "Physical Education and the Field of Public Recreation," Vigor, XIV (September, 1961), 44.

- (a) the conscious maintenance of a healthy body through sufficient and suitable physical activity and
- (b) the prevention of harmful influences due to an unhealthy environment.
- 2. To develop strength, mobility and agility.
- 3. To encourage participation in and to promote the development of functional movements.
- 4. To teach and give practice in physical skills.
- 5. To assist the individual in making social adjustments by, for instance cultivating leadership and contributing to ethical qualities such as honesty and responsibility towards others, and to provide a medium for the teaching and practice of good living.
- 6. To develop the individual emotionally through creating opportunities for self-expression and also through promoting self-confidence, and through teaching self-control.
- 7. To develop an overall sense for the aesthetic.
- 8. To develop a healthy balanced approach towards recreation, in other words, to exercise sound judgement in relation to work, play and rest.
- 9. To develop in the individual a sense of responsibility towards a healthy mode of living, through sound health habits, health knowledge and healthy attitudes.⁹²

The aim of physical development is fairly clearly outlined in these stated aims but the concepts of recreation and leisure are included in general and vague terms.

The community-school concept (where the school shares its recreational facilities with the community, and vice versa), was advocated as early as 1950 but this proposal has made no impact in South Africa.⁹³ This again is an indication of the conservatism and reluctance to introduce new ideas that are characteristic of many South Africans.

In spite of the reluctance by educators and physical educators to accept play and recreation as an integral part of the formal educational programme, tremendous growth of

⁹² Vigor, XIII (March, 1960), 47.

⁹³ Cape Times (Cape Town), January 20, 1950, p. 3.

interscholastic athletic competition in South African schools has taken place.⁹⁴ This reflects the values of most South Africans. It is believed that need for success is a basic value of Protestantism. In sport the same values of achievement and asceticism apply. Even the Puritans, who are not usually associated with leisurely life, could therefore justify sport as a physical activity because of its contribution to health.⁹⁵ Achievement in sport is a value that is characteristic of South African society. The concept of working hard and playing hard is strongly emphasized in South African schools⁹⁶ but in 1961 it was pointed out by the chairman of SAAHPER, Dr. Rudolf Opperman, that in contrast with informal recreational activities, there had been a marked decrease in the number of individuals attracted to conventional forms of sport.⁹⁷ In 1966 it was estimated that more than 300,000 young people in South Africa did not participate in any form of organized sport nor belonged to any club, youth organization or other association which provided opportunities for active participation. It was felt that this reflected a failure on the part of

⁹⁴ ICHPER, Physical Education in the School Curriculum, p. 65.

⁹⁵ Lüschen, "Interdependence of Sport and Culture," p. 89.

⁹⁶ Cape Times (Cape Town), December 9, 1963, p. 7.

⁹⁷ Opperman, "Physical Education and Public Recreation," p. 44.

physical education to provide for the needs of the youth.⁹⁸

Summary

Traditionally education has been conceived by the average South African layman, and even by many educators, as a process of acquiring occupational knowledge and skills through the medium of the school. The form, function, and scope of physical education are to a great extent determined by the nature and objectives of education in general. Even today there is much agitation from the public for the school to return to the teaching of the "fundamentals" or the "three R's." In spite of this, interscholastic athletic competition has established a strong position in South African schools. Although much attention is paid to the sports programme it does, however, take place outside regular school hours and is not at all associated with the physical education period that appears on the school time table. Thus, in spite of the emphasis of sport in South African culture, it is not included in the educational curriculum but rather is regarded as an extramural activity.

Education (which includes physical education), to be relevant to societal needs, must be sensitive to social changes. Physical education in South Africa did not always make the necessary adjustments to the changing values of South African society and it is believed that this lack of

⁹⁸Editoral, Vigor, XIX (June, 1966).

adaptation on the part of physical educators contributed much to the relatively poor status of physical education in South African schools after the Second World War.

CHAPTER VII

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Each society has its own beliefs, customs, and norms which constitute its cultural mentality. The cultural values of a society do not only control the normative behaviour of its members but also serve as standards or guidelines for evaluating new concepts and new situations. Although cultural values strive towards controlling and maintaining existing cultural patterns, changing situations may exert enough pressure on a society to affect existing values. Situational change confronting a society can cause cultural values to undergo change in one of a variety of ways.¹

Because education is a cultural organization, established by society to perpetuate its culture, its aims, methods, and content reflect the cultural values of the society it serves. In order to fulfill a worthwhile function in an educational system it will have to complement and supplement the aims of education.

The investigation into the evolvement and direction of South African physical education resulted in the conclusion that the role, status, and nature of physical education

¹Changes may, for example, occur in the form of value acquisition or abandonment; value redistribution; value emphasis or de-emphasis; or value rescaling. (Nicholas Rescher, "What is Value Change? A Framework for Research," in Values and the Future, ed., by Baier, pp. 69-70.

in South Africa have, to a large extent, been determined by the particular situation in which it found itself during various stages of its development.

In the first period (1652-1839) a few schools were established in the Cape Province. The main function of these schools was to teach the young the elementary skills of reading and writing. Although simple arithmetic was taught in some cases, the main purpose of education was to prepare the youth for membership in the Church. Education, then, was mainly of a religious character. Physical education, as well as other secular subjects, did not have a place in the limited curriculum of these schools.

Because the major part of South African history during the eighteenth and nineteenth century was characterized by periods of mass migration the unsettled and nomadic life in the South African interior made the establishment of schools difficult as well as impractical. The teaching of the trekker children was in the hands of itinerant meesters. The content of formal education was generally not only of a poor quality but also limited in extent. The fact that physical activity and skills such as riding, shooting and hunting were integral parts of daily life did not warrant the inclusion of physical training in a school curriculum.

In the situation of the pioneer trekboer and Voortrekker where each member of the family was occupied with the conquering of a physical frontier and where there was no clear-cut division between work, education and life

itself, physical education formed part of everyday activities and skills necessary for survival.

The appointment of the first Superintendent-General of Education in 1839, together with the economic growth that resulted from the discovery of gold and diamonds, stimulated educational developments in South Africa. The termination of the Great Trek and the settlement of the Boers in the Transvaal and the Orange Free State also led to the establishment of more schools. Physical education received sporadic consideration.

The cultural values of the early South African settlers were reflected in their education. Belief in a second spiritual life, and the Protestant work ethic emphasized values of work, seriousness and religious piety. These Calvinistic values, reinforced by a physical environment of isolation, hardship and insecurity were reflected in the almost exclusively religious nature of the school curriculum. In such a situation physical training, organized games, or similar "frivolous" activities did not warrant inclusion in the school curriculum.

With the development of education and the broadening of the curriculum, physical education was in some cases introduced into the schools.

Although the belief in education was highly placed on the South African value system, education implied the acquisition of factual knowledge through book learning. Because

manual labour was regarded as inferior, the inclusion of occupational skills such as woodwork and needlework in the schools was viewed with suspicion. The introduction of physical education in some schools, likewise, was not a reflection of the cultural values of the time. A lack of the need and desire on the part of the local inhabitants for the inclusion of physical education in the school programme, to a great extent, accounts for its failure to become established in South African schools prior to the 1930's.

Growing nationalism, poverty and the urban-rural disruption brought about major changes in the life pattern of many South Africans in the 1930's. In this process major changes in cultural values took place which in turn had a significant effect on physical education. The new values of nationalism and cultural pride, together with the physical and moral decline of the South African nation, provided physical education with a situation that stimulated its growth.

Each nation has, in certain situations, endeavoured to educate the body to perform acts conforming with and furthering the philosophy of the times.² The muscle training and discipline of Danish, Swedish and German physical

²David K. Brace "Physical Educational Experience in Relation to Cultural and Educational Values in a Dynamic Society," in Anthology of Contemporary Readings, ed., by Howard S. Slusher and Aileen S. Lockhart (Dubuque, Iowa: W. M. C. Brown Company Publishers, 1968), p. 210.

education systems fitted in well with the South African cultural values of national pride, discipline, and strength of character. The objectives of moral rehabilitation and "mental discipline" were paralleled by the idea of "physical discipline" through a physical training programme.

Physical education could provide for the needs and demands of South Africa within that particular situation and because it conformed to cultural values, it was regarded as a sufficiently worthwhile pursuit to be included in the schools on a national basis. Cultural values not only facilitated the acceptance of physical education but also shaped its nature. Physical education reflected the contemporary cultural values in its format of physical training. This programme was characterized by formality, discipline, and an emphasis on posture and health.

The period 1933-1945 was marked by a situation that brought about the hey-day of South African physical education. Growing Afrikaner nationalism, poverty, and the physical and moral decline of the South African nation led to an investigation and reorganization of education. In this process of national rehabilitation the potential of physical education as a factor in nation-building was given consideration. This resulted in the formation of the National Advisory Council for Physical Education in 1938 and the introduction of physical education on a national basis.

The first university course for physical education

was introduced at Stellenbosch University in 1936. Similar courses followed at four other universities and several teacher's training colleges. Compulsory physical education for all pupils was introduced in the Cape Province in 1938. This example was followed by the Education Departments of the other three provinces.

The NACPE published separate physical education syllabuses for men and women. The content and methods introduced by the syllabuses reflected the eclectic nature of South African physical education. Aspects of the Danish, Swedish, German and English systems were represented in physical education programmes.

Physical education in South Africa after the Second World War was marked by a decline in interest and status. Economic recovery, the termination of the war, and emphasis on content education created a situation in which the worth attached to formal physical education diminished. Although interscholastic athletics and organized sports had established a prominent position in South African schools the intramural physical education programme suffered many insufficiencies during this period. The lack of interest in the physical training concept demanded a new image for physical education. Milestones in the development of South African physical education in this period were the first Congress for physical education held in 1945 and the formation of the South African Association for Physical Education, Health and Recreation in 1950.

American influence was strongly felt after the 1950's and a movement towards a more informal and varied programme followed. This movement met with some resistance. Reaction was particularly strong in some circles of men's physical education. In contrast with this, experimentation with new ideas was prominent in the rapid development of women's physical education. In spite of changing situations men's physical education has not undergone major changes in the last few decades.

The universal emphasis on physical fitness in the 1960's received some attention in South Africa. This, however, did not make any significant impact on the physical education programme in the schools.

Industrialization, mechanization, and urbanization brought about an increasing emphasis on recreation in South Africa. This shift in emphasis has not been reflected in the current physical education programme.

Industrial development and the growth of urban centres brought about a change in values which contributed to the growth of organized sport. A clear-cut division between work and leisure was established when the employee left his place of work at regular hours to return to his home. Increasing mechanization also provided the average man with more free time after work. In contrast with traditional values, sport and recreation came to be regarded as worthwhile pursuits. Sport, play, and recreation became socially sanctioned. Because of the intrinsic values such

as character-building, and healthy living, that were ascribed to sport, it became acceptable to the clergy and educators alike. The Protestant work ethic did not only contribute to the creation of a highly competitive society in the economic and professional fields but its emphasis on success and achievement also created a situation in which athletic competition thrived. This is clearly reflected in the prominent role and status of interscholastic athletic competition in South African schools.

General prosperity and rise of South African per capita income fostered increased interest and participation in a wider range of recreational activities. Activities such as yachting, golf, polo, skiing, etc., have not only become part of the way of life of the upper classes but attract increasing numbers of participants from all social classes. In spite of these major developments in the areas of sport and recreation some sections of South African physical education seemed to have been enclosed in their own situation of isolated conservatism. As early as 1945 Mrs. Holland, lecturer of physical education at the Training College, Johannesburg, commented on the physical education programmes in the high schools as follows:

I think that these Programmes have suffered from an overdose of traditionalism, and the traditional morning gymnastics is in one water-tight compartment

while the games and swimming, taking place in the afternoon, are in another water-tight compartment.³

The men's programmes have appeared to cling rigidly to pre-war concepts of physical education. In 1949 Jokl wrote:

In principle, a distinction must be drawn between the formative aspect of physical education and recreational functions of those leisure-time activities which include physical education. The former, with its health and growth promoting effects and its influence upon standards of scholastic achievement and discipline, is primarily a function of the education authorities. Formative physical training will therefore have to be dealt with in the main by the schools.⁴

Although Jokl recognized the need for providing recreation, sport, and organized games for the school-going population he envisaged the main purpose of the physical education lesson during school hours as being of a formative, remedial, and disciplinary nature. In the situation surrounding physical education at that time such an arrangement was still desirable. Changing conditions, however, have brought about new social needs and cultural values. These changes have required adjusting and modification of physical education programmes. Although physical education has, to some extent, attempted to accommodate changing societal needs and values, the fact that it has made little progress can to a large extent be blamed on the inadequacy of readjustment to changing situations. It is believed that the artificial segmentation

³F. C. Holland, "Physical Education for Girls and Women," Report of the First South African Congress for Physical Education, p. 113.

⁴Jokl, "Sport and Recreation," p. 442.

of physical education, sport, recreation, health and fitness, has isolated physical education from changing societal needs and has been a major detrimental factor in the growth of physical education in the evolving South African society of the last few decades.

Although physical education has been retained as a compulsory subject in South African schools it is still much hampered by inadequate time allotment, inadequate facilities and equipment, and lack of status.

In spite of the fact that man has made great strides towards controlling and changing his environment the organism of his body has remained relatively unchanged and still has the same basic needs. One of these needs is that of physical activity. In view of the fact that the evolution of man has taken thousands of years it is unlikely that there will be much change in the near future. Though physical prowess may not rank high on an individual's hierarchy of values, he should not ignore his body and its needs.

Basic needs for physical education will remain for some time, even if the need of manpower for war is removed. Spectators will continue to value skill, speed, power, contest, and the beauty of movement. Moving for the fun of it will remain part of man's life for some time.

Statistics have indicated that there is a growing

demand for recreational activities.⁵ In this age of leisure--and it has been predicted that in thirty years time over one quarter of the average person's life-span will be spent in pursuits of his own choosing⁶--physical education has an important function to fulfill. It can assist man in coping with the demands of life in the modern age. Organized education undertakes to help the individual to develop to the maximum degree of his capacity and to function successfully in the environment in which he lives, and also to contribute towards the advancement of the society of which he is a member. Physical education can play a major part in this aspect of education if it is attuned to the needs of the individual and the society it is to serve.

The needs of society vary according to the situation which confronts it from time to time. Physical education must be sensitive to these fluctuations. This implies that it is necessary to evaluate the elements of foreign systems present in South African physical education programmes to determine whether they are indeed still relevant to the present environment and socio-cultural situation.

In 1968 the International Council on Health, Physical Education and Recreation made a survey of the aims and objectives of physical education programmes in thirty two countries

⁵"The Golden Age of Sport," Time, June 2, 1967,
pp. 34-35.

⁶J. W. Will, "Boredom--The Psycho-Social Disease of Aging," quoted in P. G. Arnold, Education, Physical Education and Personality Development (New York: Atherton Press, 1968), p. 136.

throughout the world.⁷ The conclusion that may be drawn from the study is that certain aims and objectives are basic to physical education and will remain part of the worth attached to the subject. Some of the present values will, however, lose their importance while others will be maintained more effectively. It is also possible that new ones will be added.

Therefore, since there is a basic underlying need for physical education in South Africa, the problem of physical educators is to make this need apparent.

The part played by physical education in society is determined by the situation confronting society at a specific time. Whereas at one time its chief values were supposed to be posture, health and strength, these may become obsolete and be replaced by new concepts.

According to Dewey's principle of continuity of experience, education should be a process of growth which should be lifelong. This cannot be said with certainty of the majority of people coming out of physical education programmes. For the great majority, the educative process almost ceases from the moment they leave school and is characterized by apathy, passivity and loss of identity.⁸

⁷ International Council on Health, Physical Education and Recreation, Physical Education and Sports in Schools. A Working Paper (Mexico City: UNESCO, 1968).

⁸ Will, "Boredom--The Psycho-Social Disease of Aging," p. 135.

Physical education will be judged by the contribution it makes to fine living. In order to make a worthy contribution it is necessary for South African physical education to re-evaluate and readjust its aims, content, and methods within the framework of current situation, societal needs, and cultural values. This implies that more attention should be given to the specific needs and interests of South African society outside the narrow context of the school. If physical education is to be considered a valuable contributor towards education in general, and since education is regarded as a life-long process, it should direct more effort towards equipping the child with the necessary skills, knowledge, experiences, and attitudes that will continue to be useful to him once he leaves the school.

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